William Allen

AN ACCOUNT OF THE SPANISH SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA.

IN FOUR PARTS.

I. An account of the diſcovery of America by the celebrated Chriſtopher Columbus; with a deſcription of the Spaniſh inſulan colonies in the Weſt Indies.

II. Their ſettlements on the continent of North America.

III. Their ſettlements in Peru, Chili, Paraguay, and Rio de La Plata.

IV. Their ſetttlements in Terra Firma. Of the different countries in South America ſtill poſſeſſed by the Indians, &c. With a deſcription of the Canary iſlands.

EACH PART CONTAINS

An accurate deſcription of the ſettlements in it, their ſituation, extent, climate, ſoil, produce, former and preſent condition, trading commodities, manufactures, the genius, diſpoſition, and number of their inhabitants, their government, both civil and eccleſiaſtic; together with a conciſe account of their chief cities, ports, bays, rivers, lakes, mountains, minerals, fortifications, &c.; with a very particular account of the trade carried on betwixt them and Old Spain.

To which is annexed,

A ſuccinct account of the climate, produce, trade, manufactures, &c. of OLD SPAIN.

Illuſtrated with a MAP of AMERICA.

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BRITISH MUSEUM

PREFACE.

AMERICA is by far the largeſt of the four grand diviſions of the world, and is now become of the greateſt importance to the maritime powers of Europe, the affairs of which have lately engaged a great deal of the public attention. Before the laſt war there were but very few who made the hiſtory of that quarter of the world any part of their ſtudy, though the matter is certainly very curious in itſelf, and extremely intereſting to us as a trading people.

It has ſuch a variety of climates, and ſuch abundance of the moſt valuable productions, that all the principal European powers have been very attentive to their particular intereſts and connections in this part of the globe, which they have coloniſed with great aſſiduity, and cultivated with amazing ſucceſs.

The Spaniards owe all their former grandeur, and preſent exiſtence, to their poſſeſſions in Mexico, Peru, Chili, and other American ſettlements. The Portugueſe have aggrandiſed their nation by the ſettlements they have eſtabliſhed in the Brazils. Great Britain is indebted to her colonies in North America, and her iſlands in the Weſt Indies, for the great augmentation of her trade, the increaſe of her wealth, and the ſupport of her potent navy. The Dutch receive no inconſiderable advantage from Surinam in Guiana, and their iſlands adjacent to the Spaniſh main. France has alſo extended her commerce, ſo as to rank herſelf a maritime power, by means of her late poſſeſſions in Canada, Louiſiana, Cayenne, in South America, and the Leeward iſlands; but by her ambition, and openly graſping at what belonged to her neighbours, ſhe has lately loſt the greateſt part of her ſettlements in the weſtern world. And as a repre-

ſentation of the cauſes of the preſent war between Great Britain and France, and our late remarkable ſucceſſes in America, will naturally lead us to account for the preſent rupture between Spain and us; we ſhall therefore, in as conciſe a manner as poſſible, give a brief detail of the riſe and progreſs of the preſent war.

Notwithſtanding of the great extent, and the vaſt advantages which the French reaped from their colonies and fiſheries in North America, yet that reſtleſs nation, which never loſes ſight of univerſal monarchy, ſoon began to make inroads upon the Britiſh ſettlements.

After the treaty of Utrecht, concluded in the year 1713, they openly incroached upon the country of the Iroquois, which lies within the territories of New York, and built ſeveral fortreſſes there, namely, one between the lakes of Erie and Ontario, on the eaſt ſide of the great falls of Niagara, to command the Indians that ſhould paſs by the ſouth ſide of the lake. They erected a ſecond at the weſt end of lake Erie; and another very ſtrong one at the ſouth end of lake Iroquois, called *Crown-point*, which commands the lake, ſerved for a barrier to Montreal, and as a magazine and place of rendezvous whenever the French or their Indians made any incurſion into the colony of New York, the weſtern parts of Maſſachuſets bay, or New Hampſhire.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, concluded in 1748, was no ſooner ſigned, and the French put in poſſeſſion of Cape Breton, than they were deſirous alſo of becoming maſters of Nova Scotia, a country ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it could not fail of highly promoting their commercial intereſt in the new world. In order therefore to obtain this important article, they erected forts in 1749, at the mouth of St John's river. This proceeding, however, was ſo far from

being agreeable to the British ministry, that Colonel Cornwallis was ordered to destroy the fortifications. Accordingly he dispatched Major Lawrence to St John's river; but he not having with him a sufficient number of troops, was repulsed by the French. Both courts remonstrated against these proceedings, and commissaries were appointed to terminate the affair, and fix the boundaries of a country, which all the world knew had been long before settled by the treaties of Utrecht and Aix-la-Chapelle.

About the same time several merchants and planters of Virginia and Pensylvania, induced by the advantages they flattered themselves of enjoying from an inland trade, formed themselves into a company, and determined to settle in that delightful country near the river Ohio, and thence called themselves *the Ohio company*. Accordingly they procured a charter for a large tract of land, and commenced an extensive and lucrative trade with the Indians.

But these proceedings alarmed the French, knowing, that if the Ohio company were permitted to put their scheme in execution, they would soon become masters of the greatest part of the fur-trade, and therefore determined to nip them in the bud. With this view a body of troops was dispatched to seize every person found trading in those parts, under pretence that the country belonged to his Most Christian Majesty, though they knew that these lands lay within the limits of Virginia.

These repeated insults only produced remonstrances, and the French ministry, in order to protract a negotiation so greatly to their interest, promised to remove the cause of complaint, by fixing the limits betwixt the colonies of the two nations; but, at the same time, exerted themselves with the utmost vigour in effecting a scheme long projected, namely, the erecting a chain of forts from Canada to the mouth of the

river

river Miſſiſippi, in order to exclude us from all intercourſe with the Indians, whom they had found means to gain over to their intereſt; and, at the ſame time, excited theſe ſavage barbarians to commit the moſt horrid ravages upon our back ſettlements, and perpetrate the moſt ſhocking murders on the innocent inhabitants. Nor was this the utmoſt extent of their diabolical project; they had obſerved that our colonies were diſtracted with inteſtine diviſions, and therefore flattered themſelves, that when their chain of forts was completed, and the extenſive lands on the Ohio ſufficiently peopled, the Britiſh colonies would become an eaſy conqueſt.

Such were the intentions of our treacherous foes, who continued to fortify the countries they had ununjuſtly uſurped, and obſtinately perſevered in their glaring incroachments, till the Britiſh ſpirit was at laſt rouſed from the bed of indolence to chaſtiſe their daring perfidy.

The conteſt however was long doubtful, and, by our ſupineneſs and bad conduct, the French were every where victorious and triumphant. Our meaſures for carrying on the war were but poorly planned, and as indifferently executed, (witneſs the defeat of Braddock, and the ſhameful retreat of Byng, *&c.*), ſo that the face of our affairs for a conſiderable time wore a melancholy and gloomy aſpect. But after bribery and corruption were baniſhed from the throne, and a perſon of integrity, untainted virtue, and deep penetration, (who will for ever be held in the greateſt eſtimation by all the true lovers of our country), was put at the head of the public adminiſtration, the Britiſh affairs ſoon took a more favourable turn, and put on a more lovely countenance; proper methods for proſecuting the juſt war with vigour were ſpeedily planned, and Providence was pleaſed to grant remarkable ſucceſs to

our

our arms in every quarter of the world, both by ſea and land.

An expedition was ſent againſt Cape Breton under the command of the brave Adm. Boſcawen, in conſequence of which the important fortreſs of Louiſburg ſurrendered to his Majeſty's arms in July 1758. Our army on the continent of America now acted with conduct and intrepidity, ſo that all the forts they had erected on our property were ſpeedily reduced, and the links of that chain which was intended to enſlave this country, were quickly cut aſunder. In September 1759, Quebec, the capital of Canada, was taken by our victorious arms, and with it fell all that extenſive tract of country. This gave the finiſhing ſtroke to the French empire in America, and at once diſconcerted all their deep-laid ſchemes; for, by the fall of their capital, they were obliged to abandon the country, and ſurrender the whole of it to the victorious Britons. Our arms were no leſs ſucceſsful in the Weſt Indies; witneſs the fall of Guadalupe, Marigalante, *&c.* In Africa the conqueſt of Senegal and Goree, and the fall of Pondicherry, *&c.* are a ſufficient teſtimony of our ſucceſs in the eaſtern climes. The French being thus diſpoſſeſſed of moſt of their foreign ſettlements, at laſt threatened us with an invaſion, as the laſt expedient, and, for this purpoſe, made great preparations in ſeveral parts of the kingdom: but their fleet deſtined to carry their armies, which were to ravage the fertile fields of Britain, was blocked up in Breſt harbour for ſeveral months. At laſt the important moment arrived, a ſtrong weſterly wind blew Sir Edward Hawke from his ſtation into Torbay; they ſeized the favourable moment, and left their fortified aſylum, and ſteered for the bay of Quiberon: but they did not long purſue their courſe in ſafety; for, on the 20th of November 1759, the brave Britiſh Admiral came up with them off the ſouth end

of

of Belleiſle, when a deſperate engagement enſued, and the French armament was entirely defeated, which put a final period to their boaſted invaſion.

But it is neceſſary to obſerve, that, during this bloody war with France, the Spaniards ſhewed great partialities to that kingdom, which were quite inconſiſtent with their boaſted neutrality, and repeatedly inſulted us in the moſt audacious manner; witneſs the ſtory of the Antigallican's prize, and the loſs of one of his Majeſty's ſloops of war, taken within ſoundings, and even within gun-ſhot of the Spaniſh forts. They alſo aſſiſted them in taking prizes: and we are informed from undoubted authority, that the inhabitants of St Lucar, and other ports, got French commiſſions, by virtue of which, when they found any Britiſh veſſels of ſmall force, within ſoundings, or a league off the land, they with one Frenchman on board put off their ſloops and rowboats, and made prizes. But to return: The French at laſt, through a repeated ſeries of misfortunes and diſappointments, grew weary of the war, and, in order to put an end to it, propoſed overtures of peace to the court of Great Britain. Accordingly M. Buſſy came to London, and Mr Stanley was ſent to Paris to carry on the negotiation.

With regard to the affairs of North America, M. Buſſy offered to cede Canada, on condition that the bounds of Louiſiana ſhould be enlarged and ceded to France; and, as a ſecurity for our colonies, they agreed to give a barrier to them. He further inſiſted for liberty to fiſh on the banks and coaſts of Newfoundland, and to have the iſland of Sable for the conveniency of drying their fiſh.

Theſe articles were the hinges on which the negotiation turned, and which the Spaniſh miniſtry thought ſo reaſonable; and in a memorial which they preſented by the French ambaſſador, threatened us with a war if we did not comply with them; they

further demanded for themſelves a ſhare in the Newfoundland fiſhery, and to have the whole logwood trade ſecured to them!

For the Spaniſh court thus inſolently to interfere in our conteſt with France, was an inſult not to be paſſed with impunity. Were they ſo fooliſh as to imagine, that we ſhould wantonly fling away the important conqueſts we had acquired at the expenſe of ſo much blood and treaſure, eſpecially as it is evident beyond all contradiction, that we were not the firſt aggreſſors, merely to oblige them?

In the mean time his Catholic Majeſty entered into an inſidious treaty, or family-compact with the French King, our profeſſed enemy, which was concluded on the 15th of Auguſt 1761, the ratifications of which were exchanged on the 8th of September following.

The viſible and avowed deſign of this new alliance was, to eſtabliſh a laſting and perpetual union between the ſeveral branches of the ambitious houſe of Bourbon, ſo that the political views of any of the princes of this houſe ſhall be at all times promoted and ſupported by the conjunction of all their forces againſt any and all opponents. This alliance is directly contrary to the ſpirit both of the treaty of Utrecht and that of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was alſo a glaring teſtimony of the good faith and ſincerity with which the crown of France acted in the late negotiation, ſince it is evident beyond all diſpute, that the pacific negotiation at London, and that for the concluſion of this family-compact, went on *pari paſſu*. It likewiſe ſhews very plainly what we have hereafter to expect. We muſt live upon good terms, not only with one, but all the branches of the houſe of Bourbon, or we muſt reſolve to break with them all, if we are diſpoſed to reſent the injuries received from any one of them.

In conſequence of this engagement contracted be-

tween the courts of Verſailles and Madrid, and the military preparations that were making in all the ports of Spain, my Lord Briſtol, then ambaſſador at the court of Madrid, was deſired to aſk a very ſober and cuſtomary queſtion, *viz.* Whether his Catholic Majeſty intended to join the French, our enemies, and to act hoſtily againſt Great Britain? The anſwer given to this queſtion, modeſt as it was, was perhaps the moſt aſtoniſhing ever heard, namely, that the very queſtion itſelf was a declaration of war.

Spain having thus demonſtrated herſelf to have the moſt hoſtile intentions againſt us, notwithſtanding of the truly equitable and wiſe conduct of the court of Great Britain, his Britannic Majeſty therefore ſigned a declaration of war againſt the King of Spain the 2d day of January laſt, which was publiſhed with the uſual formalities.

It is very natural to ſuppoſe, ſeeing we are thus engaged in a bloody war with Spain, that moſt people will be fond of being acquainted with the ſtate and ſituation of her foreign colonies: but then there is a general complaint, that the hiſtories of the Spaniſh ſettlements in America are either too ſhort and imperfect, or ſo blended with other ſubjects, that many people have not ſufficient time to conſult them; to remove therefore this evil was the deſign of the following ſheets, in which are given a very particular deſcription of their ſeveral ſettlements, both on the continent and iſlands of America, with a diſtinct view of their produce and trading commodities; the manner of carrying on the trade to theſe diſtant climes, and the vaſt treaſures the Spaniards annually receive from them. The appendix contains a ſuccinct account of the ſtrength and policy of the Spaniſh nation; the moſt remarkable revolutions that have happened there, and the bad œconomy of the Spaniſh monarchs with regard to the management of their American colonies.

lonies. And if, in treating ſo many things in ſo conciſe a manner, we have been guilty of omiſſions or miſtakes, (which is undoubtedly the caſe), they are ſubmitted to the cenſure of the candid reader; who, it is hoped, will be the leſs ſevere, when he reflects on the difficulty of the taſk, and on the great variety of curious and entertaining particulars which are here collected together; and it is expected, that ſmall imperfections will not deprive us of that reward, which, of all others, is deareſt to perſons of integrity, namely, the approbation of the public.

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403.		for *Quito* read *Quibo*

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AN
ACCOUNT
OF
The SPANISH SETTLEMENTS in AMERICA, &c.

PART I.

An account of the diſcovery of America; with a deſcription of the Spaniſh inſulan colonies in the Weſt Indies.

CHAP. I.

A general deſcription of America; with a brief account of its diſcovery, by the celebrated Chriſtopher Columbus, in the year 1492.

ACcording to the rules of geography, the terreſtrial globe, conſiſting of land and water, is 360 degrees, each degree containing 60 miles; ſo that the whole circumference of the globe is 21,600 geographical miles, and the diameter 7200. But if the com-

General diviſion of the terreſtrial globe.

putation is made by Engliſh miles, the globe will be 25,020 miles round, and 8340 in diameter; becauſe 69½ Engliſh miles are equal to one degree, or 60 geographical miles. It is ſuppoſed, that, at leaſt, two thirds of this globe conſiſt of water, and the remainder of earth. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans, called the *Atlantic*, *Pacific*, and *Indian* oceans, beſides the Mediterranean, and other leſſer ſeas. The land is divided into two great continents; the one called the *Eaſtern* or *Old World*; the other, the *Weſtern* or *New World*; ſeparated from each other by the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The Atlantic ocean is about 3000 miles wide from Africa to South America, and about the ſame breadth from North America to Europe: the Pacific is upwards of 9000 miles wide, from America to Aſia. The Eaſtern continent is ſubdivided into three parts, *viz.* Europe on the north-weſt, Aſia on the north-eaſt, and Africa on the ſouth. But the Weſtern continent conſiſts only of America, which is divided into North and South.

Extent and boundaries of America.

America is by far the largeſt part of the four grand dviſions of the world, lying between the parallels of 35° and 145 degrees of weſtern longitude; between 80° north, and 58 degrees of ſouth latitude. It is bounded by the lands and ſeas about the arctic pole, on the north; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, which ſeparates it from the eaſtern continent; on the ſouth by the great ſouthern ocean; and on the weſt by

by the Pacific, which divides it from Aſia: ſo that it is between 8 and 9000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and between 3 and 4000 miles in breadth. Though the iſthmus which joins North to South America is not 60 miles over, yet from thence both parts of this continent ſtretch themſelves out from eaſt to weſt, till they make the above-mentioned breadth; to which may be added the ſeveral iſlands in the ſouth and north ſeas adjacent to the coaſts of America.

A country of ſuch great extent, not only on each ſide of the equinox, but extending ſo far beyond each of the tropics, muſt neceſſarily be ſuppoſed to have as great a variety of ſoils, as it has of climates: though upon the whole, excepting the moſt northern and ſouthern parts, (which are generally cold and barren), the reſt is an immenſe treaſury of nature, productive of moſt, if not of all the plants, grains, fruits, trees, and minerals, that are found in the other parts of the world; not only in as great quantities, but many of them more ſo, and in much greater perfection: beſides, it has a variety of others peculiar to itſelf, which will not grow or flouriſh in any other country. But theſe are nothing in compariſon to the numerous and inexhauſtible mines of gold and ſilver, which are ſo far from being impoveriſhed, that they ſeem rather to want ſome freſh ſupplies of hands to draw out their endleſs treaſures, and gorge the inſatiable

Climate and ſoil.

Gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones.

avarice of mankind, notwithſtanding all the art and labour of men has been employed in endeavouring to drain them for theſe two laſt centuries. Gold and ſilver are, however, far from being the only precious commodities which this country produces: for here are to be found great abundance of diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones; which are ſent into Europe in ſuch quantities, as to render their value very inconſiderable, in compariſon of what they were formerly. To theſe may be added a great number of other uſeful commodities, ſuch as the conſtant and plentiful ſupplies of ſugar, tobacco, cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil wood, fuſtic, lignum vitæ, ginger, pimento, cocoa, cotton, redwood; all kinds of valuable timber, furs, hides, ambergris, balſams of Peru and Tolu, Jeſuits bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, with many other kinds of other woods and plants, to which the Europeans were quite ſtrangers before the diſcovery of this new world, or were obliged to purchaſe them at an extravagant price from Aſia and Africa, perhaps at the third or fourth hand.

Fruits. America alſo abounds in excellent fruits, that grow in the greateſt plenty and perfection, ſuch as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, limes, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, and many others, with abundance of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants. To all theſe may be added the ſurpriſing fecun-

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dity of the ſoil, which makes it nouriſh many exotic productions in as great perfection, as their own native ſoil. Coffee and rice are a pregnant proof of this, which have been lately cultivated there with remarkable ſucceſs, and might be extended to many other vegetables, that Europeans are obliged to bring from Aſia and Africa, at extravagant prices.

Yet, with all this variety and plenty, the Americans laboured under the want of many very neceſſary and uſeful commodities: for the Europeans, on their firſt landing there, found neither corn, wine, nor oil, the inhabitants making their bread of ſome kind of pulſe or roots; their drink too was altogether common: and they were totally unacquainted with the uſe of money, though they had gold and ſilver in the greateſt abundance. Notwithſtanding the land in America abounded with the moſt luxuriant paſtures, yet, before the arrival of the Spaniards amongſt them, they had neither cattle, horſes, aſſes, ſheep, goats, or hogs; and it is ſaid, that the very ſight of any of theſe animals, eſpecially a horſe, would throw a whole troop of theſe wild inhabitants into a panic. And we may obſerve, that it was greatly owing to this, together with their want of fire-arms, that a handful of Spaniards ſo ſoon conquered the greateſt part of their dominions. But the want of theſe uſeful animals, with all kinds of poultry, is long ſince ſupplied; for the Spaniards ſent thither all ſorts of European animals, which have propagated to ſuch an immenſe de-

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gree, that their numbers are incredible. However, inſtead of theſe European animals, the Americans had ſeveral kinds of others, equally uſeful and valuable, which were unknown to Europeans. The ſame may be ſaid of that prodigious number of birds which are to be ſeen there, many of them greatly ſurpaſſing all that can be found in any other parts of the world, for their beautiful ſhapes and plumage. Beſides, there are ſurpriſing quantities of fiſh of all kinds, both in their ſeas and rivers.

Mountains.

America in general is not a mountainous country, yet it can boaſt of the greateſt mountains in the univerſe. The Andes, or Cordilleras, of amazing altitude, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific ocean. Though for the moſt part within the torrid zone, yet their lofty ſummits are perpetually covered with ſnow. In the province of St Martha, in Terra Firma, are likewiſe very high mountains, which communicate with the former. In North America we know of none conſiderable, but that long ridge, which is ſituated on the back of our ſettlements, called the *Apalachian* or *Allegeny* mountains; they have upon one ſide a pretty ſteep declivity, but upon the other are nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

Rivers.

America without all compariſon is that part of the world which is beſt watered, and that not only for the ſupport of life, but alſo for the conveniency of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the other.

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In North America, the great river Miſſiſippi, riſing from unknown ſources, runs an immenſe courſe from north to ſouth, and receives the vaſt tribute of the Ohio, Ouabache, and other great rivers, ſcarcely to be poſtponed to the Rhine or the Danube, navigable almoſt to their very ſources, and laying open the inmoſt receſſes of this large continent. Near the heads of theſe rivers are five great lakes, or rather ſeas of freſh water, communicating with each other, and all of them communicating with the ocean by means of the river St Lawrence, which paſſes through them. Theſe afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantages, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, which is our portion, have the noble rivers of Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehanna, Potomack, which ſupply ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation. Several parts of our ſettlements are ſo interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that many of the planters may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America, if poſſible, is in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies the largeſt rivers in the known world, (beſides innumerable leſſer ones), *viz.* the river of the Amazons, and Rio de la Plata. The firſt riſing in Peru, not far from the South ſea, paſſes from weſt to eaſt, almoſt quite through the continent of South America, navigable for ſome ſort of veſſels all

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the way, and receiving into its boſom a prodigious number of other rivers, all navigable in the ſame manner, and ſome of them ſo great, that perſons are at a loſs to determine the main channel. The Rio de la Plata, or Plate river, riſing in the heart of the country, directs its courſe to the ſouth-eaſt, and diſcharges ſuch an immenſe quantity of water into the ſea, that it makes it taſte freſh, for ſeveral leagues from the ſhore. The Oroonoquo is likewiſe a vaſt river, and might be ranked the foremoſt amongſt any, except the American rivers.

Conjectures about the peopling of America.

Various are the conjectures about the firſt peopling of this diſtant country: for the Indians having no written records, it is impoſſible, by their traditions, to penetrate into their antiquities; the moſt learned men among Europeans being quite ignorant of every original thing relative to America. The ſtature, form, and features of the Americans are ſimilar to thoſe among the Europeans; only their complexion is browner, or more upon the olive colour: the frame and turn of their minds are the ſame with the ancient Europeans; they adored the ſame ſupreme GOD, erected temples, and ſacrificed to him in the ſame manner. They retained a tradition, that their continent was gradually peopled from a ſmall number. Their military weapons, ſuch as ſwords, ſpears, lances, bows, ſlings, and darts, were like thoſe uſed formerly by Europeans; with this difference only, that as they had loſt the uſe of iron, their

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wooden ſwords were edged with ſharp flints, while their ſpears, &c. were pointed with the bones of fiſh, or other animals. However, it is highly probable that America was early peopled, not only becauſe the inhabitants were extremely numerous, but were alſo ignorant of almoſt every art and ſcience, when the Spaniards came among them.

There is ſome reaſon to imagine, that America joins either to the north part of Aſia, or Europe, or perhaps to both; which made ſeveral writers conceive, that this continent was originally peopled from Tartary, the land of Jeſſo, or ſome other tracts by way of the north pole: but there is greater reaſon to believe that America was peopled by ſea, either by the Phœnicians or Carthaginians, who were the beſt navigators amongſt the ancients. It is certain, that part of the weſtern coaſts of Africa, and the Canary iſlands, were planted by the Carthaginians five hundred years before the Chriſtian æra; and as the Carthaginian ſhips carried ſometimes a thouſand people, and were probably crouded with men, women, and children, when they ſent colonies to theſe iſlands, as ours are when we ſend colonies to America, it is very natural to ſuppoſe that ſome of them ſhould miſs theſe iſlands, and be driven to the weſt beyond their intended port; and if this ever happened, (which is highly probable), they muſt of neceſſity be carried to America, which is but about three weeks ſailing from theſe iſlands; from whence it was impoſſible for them

to return to the eaſtern continent, the trade-winds blowing conſtantly againſt them; which is the reaſon that we never heard any thing of that world until we had the uſe of the compaſs, and the art of navigation was improved, whereby a way was found out of ſailing in higher latitudes, out of the way of the trade-winds, in order to return to the eaſtern continent. For the Carthaginian ſtate being deſtroyed by the Romans, all their diſcoveries and plantations were loſt and ruined by the neglect of navigation; ſo that when the Spaniards made a new diſcovery of the Canaries in the fourteenth century, the natives could not tell from whence to derive their original, and, like the Americans, imagined they were the only people in the world. We have reaſon therefore to conclude, that the two great empires of Mexico and Peru were originally ſettled by the Carthaginians from Africa. Before the fourteenth century, the generality of mankind were ſo far from imagining that there could be any ſuch continent, that the very thought of ſuch a thing was looked upon as extravagant; for it was believed, that the land terminated at the Canary iſlands, and that all beyond to the weſtward was ſea, though indeed ſome of the ancients gave hints to the contrary. But after the diſcovery of the Azores, Cape-Verd, and Canary iſlands, a ſtrong notion prevailed of there being a continent, or at leaſt more iſlands to the weſt of theſe. None, however, undertook to verify the truth of this, till Chriſtopher Columbus appeared,

peared, who began and perfected his diſcoveries in a ſhort ſpace of time.

This celebrated navigator was a native of Genoa, but of what family is unknown. From his youth he was addicted to the ſtudy of mathematics and navigation, and was ſoon conſidered as one of the ableſt ſeamen of the age, having viſited moſt parts of the known world, and made the moſt uſeful obſervations on the winds, currents, *&c.* where-ever he went.

This renowned perſon, being fully perſuaded that there was another continent to the weſt, or, at leaſt, that he ſhould, by ſteering to the weſtward, reach the eaſtern ſhore of the Indies; he therefore firſt applied to the ſtate of Genoa for aſſiſtance to carry his project into execution, but had the mortification to ſee his propoſals not only rejected, but ridiculed. Fired with the ungrateful return he met with from his countrymen, he determined to leave the place of his nativity, in order to propoſe his ſcheme to ſome foreign potentate: accordingly he came to France, and made application to that court; but again found himſelf diſappointed.

Columbus applied to ſeveral courts for aſſiſtance in order to make a diſcovery of America.

He next offered his ſervice to the King of Portugal, in whoſe dominions he had for ſeveral years reſided, and urged his requeſt ſo warmly, that commiſſaries were appointed to treat with him: but he found, that every objection, which either ignorance or envy could invent, was propoſed and urged againſt him. Incenſed

at ſuch ungenerous uſage, he left the court of Portugal, and went into Spain, and immediately made application to that court, and continued his ſolicitations for ſeveral years, notwithſtanding of the many repeated diſappointments he had to encounter with. At laſt, after urging his ſuit for about eight years, Queen Iſabella, a princeſs famous for her wiſdom and courage, agreed with him upon his own terms, which were very conſiderable, and ſuch as ſhewed the great confidence he had of ſucceeding in his noble attempt. This agreement was ſoon ratified after the taking of the city Granada from the Moors, whereby they were totally driven out of Spain, part of which they had poſſeſſed ſeven hundred and ſeventy years. So that two of the moſt fortunate events which ever happened to the Spaniſh monarchy, namely, the total expulſion of the Moors, and the diſcovery of the Indies, happened in the ſame year.

He agrees with the court of Spain.

Columbus was furniſhed with three carvels, and one hundred and twenty men, at Pallas de Maguere. Martin Pinſon was pilot of one, Francis Pinſon of another, and Ditus Pinſon of the third, all three brothers. They ſet ſail the 3d day of Auguſt 1492. The firſt land they touched at was Gomera, one of the Canary iſlands, where they refreſhed, took in proviſions, and afterwards ſtood to the weſtward. In this noble enterpriſe Columbus had no guide but his own genius, nor any thing to comfort and appeaſe his

Set ſail the month of Auguſt 1492.

his companions, diſcouraged and mutinous with the length and hopeleſſneſs of the voyage, but ſome indications which he drew from the uſual appearances of birds and floating ſea-weeds; moſt of them little to be depended upon, but which this wiſe commander, well acquainted with the human heart, always knew how to turn to the beſt advantage.

In this expedition the variation of the compaſs was firſt obſerved, which made a great impreſſion on Columbus's pilots. Indeed a diſcovery of this kind, made in an unknown ocean, far from the tracks of all former navigators, was ſufficient to ſtrike terror into the moſt undaunted breaſt; for nature itſelf ſeemed to be altered, and the only guide he had left appeared to be on the point of forſaking them. Columbus endeavoured to give a phyſical reaſon for this uncommon phænomenon, and his genius was ſo fertile in expedients, that he turned every occurrence to his advantage; but uſe rendered them at laſt ineffectual. His crew grew mutinous, and inſiſted on his returning, with loud and inſolent ſpeeches, and even talked of throwing him overboard. His own invention, and almoſt his hopes were near exhauſted, when the only thing that could appeaſe them happened, namely, the diſcovery of land, after a tedious voyage of thirty-three days, during which time they had ſeen nothing but the ſea and ſky.

They landed on an iſland called *Guinaya*, one of the Lucaios or Bahama iſlands, remarkable for

for nothing but this event. Columbus, after thanking GOD for his ſucceſs, formally took poſſeſſion of the iſland, in the name of their Catholic Majeſties, by erecting a croſs upon the ſhore, great multitudes of the inhabitants looking on quite unconcerned at a ceremony intended to deprive them of their natural liberty. He did not ſtay long here; but immediately directed his courſe to the ſouthward, and after ſome difficulty diſcovered the iſland of Hiſpaniola, ſituated in a good climate, and abounding in commodious harbours, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and affording conſiderable quantities of gold. Columbus therefore determined to make this iſland the centre of his deſigns, and to plant a colony in it. But in order to carry theſe ſchemes into execution, he judged it proper to return firſt to Spain, to get himſelf equipped with a proper force. After he had erected a fort, in which he left thirty-eight of his men, charging them to be very careful to preſerve the friendſhip of the Indians, and having collected a ſufficient quantity of gold to place the merit of his diſcoveries in an advantageous point of light, and at the ſame time ſelected ſuch a number of curioſities of various kinds, as could not fail of working powerfully on the minds of a gazing multitude, he then departed the iſland, carrying along with him ſome of the Indians.

Lands on the iſland of Guinaya, and diſcovers moſt of the Weſt-Indian iſlands.

On his return homewards he touched at ſeveral iſlands to the ſouthward, and diſcovered the

the Caribbees, of the barbarities of whoſe inhabitants he had heard terrible accounts at Hiſpaniola. He had before landed on Cuba; ſo that in his firſt voyage he had gained a general knowledge of moſt of the iſlands, which in ſuch vaſt numbers lie in that great ſea, which divides North from South America. But hitherto he neither knew, nor ſuſpected any continent betwixt him and China; the diſcovery of this was reſerved for his third and fourth voyage.

He arrived in Europe after an abſence of more than ſix months, and was driven by a great ſtorm to Liſbon; but having taken in the refreſhments he wanted, ſailed from Liſbon to Barcelona, which he entered in a kind of triumph, being every where followed by prodigious crouds of people, who flocked from all parts to ſee him. Arrives in Europe.

It was indeed a pleaſing, and at the ſame time an innocent triumph; for he had not deſtroyed, but diſcovered nations. The Americans he had brought with him dreſſed in their country-manner, the animals, and the various curioſities he had collected in the new world, exhibited a ſight at once curious and delightful; the admiral himſelf cloſed the proceſſion, and was received by the King and Queen with the greateſt marks of regard.

But theſe honours were far from ſatisfying Columbus. A ſecond voyage engaged his whole attention; and the ſucceſs of the firſt removing every difficulty, he His ſecond voyage.

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was ſpeedily furniſhed with ſeventeen ſail of ſhips, loaded with neceſſaries for making ſettlements, and having on board fifteen hundred men, ſome of them deſcended from the beſt families in Spain. With this fleet he ſailed on his ſecond voyage, the 25th of September 1493. On his arrival at Hiſpaniola, he found, that the fort he had formerly erected was totally demoliſhed, and the whole men he left in it ſlain.

This was a very mortifying ſtroke to Columbus, but he knew that this was not a proper time to make a ſtrict inquiry into the cauſes of this tragical ſcene; the only method for retrieving his affairs, was to take more effectual meaſures for the future. Accordingly he fixed upon a more advantageous part of the iſland, and built a town, which he called *Iſabella*, in honour of the Queen his royal patroneſs.

Columbus falſely accuſed.

Perhaps there never was a man better qualified for the great deſigns he undertook; but the gravity of his behaviour, and the ſevere diſcipline he maintained, raiſed him enemies among ſuch a mutinous and licentious ſet of people; and while he was thus exerting all his faculties to reduce this wealthy iſland, and lay the foundation of the Spaniſh grandeur in America, his enemies were trying every artifice to ruin his intereſt in Spain. Some of the principal leaders in the mutiny returned to Spain, while he was ſailed from the iſland to make diſcoveries, and, in order to juſtify their own conduct, and gratify their malice, accuſed the admiral of neglecting

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the colony, and deceiving their Majeſties and the adventurers. Nor were theſe complaints deſtitute of effect; for an officer was ſent from Spain to inſpect his actions. Columbus wiſely conſidering, that to ſtay longer in the Indies under ſuch diſagreeable circumſtances would be labouring to no purpoſe; he therefore judged it expedient to return to Spain, in order to ſupport his intereſt, and vindicate his character ſo falſely injured.

As ſoon as he appeared in Spain, all the accuſations and prejudices againſt him vaniſhed. He took care to bring ſuch teſtimonies of his fidelity and good behaviour as ſtopped the mouth of envy; and the large quantities of gold and pearls he produced, abundantly refuted all that had been artfully propagated againſt him, with regard to the poverty of the Indies. But though his enemies were ſilenced, yet they were not ſubdued; they ſaw it was in vain to oppoſe him openly, and therefore determined to make their attacks in ſecret, which did not prove altogether fruitleſs; ſo that the admiral had the mortification to experience a thouſand delays and diſappointments before he was able to ſet ſail on his third voyage, though on a diſcovery of the utmoſt importance to the Spaniſh nation. The firſt land he made in this voyage was the iſland of Trinidad, or Trinity, on the coaſt of Terra Firma; he afterwards touched at ſeveral places on the continent, where he traded with the inhabitants, who appeared to have gold and pearls in tolerable plenty.

His third voyage.

During this voyage the admiral underwent ſuch prodigious fatigues, that his brother, who was left at Hiſpaniola, hardly knew him at his return. Nor was he like to enjoy more repoſe at land, than before at ſea. For on his arrival he found the colony divided into two parties, a rebellion having ſoon broke out after his departure for Spain, which had cauſed an entire ſeparation. The rebels appointed one Francis Roldan for their chief, who had gained over the Indians to their party, by pretending to be the aſſertors of their liberty. Columbus, however, by uſing mild and prudent methods, ſoon quelled this dangerous rebellion, and reſtored peace and tranquillity in the iſland again. In the mean time his enemies in Spain were not idle, but continued their malicious perſecutions, and being joined by ſome of the late rebels, who returned in the fleet from America, preſented freſh complaints againſt him to the King; falſely alleging, that he was doing every thing in his power to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, and making himſelf popular among that people, in order to ſet up for himſelf, and deprive the Spaniſh nation of the advantages that might accrue from theſe diſcoveries. Theſe malicious clamours aroſe to ſuch a height in Spain, that the King and Queen were obliged to ſend a judge with authority to inquire into the admiral's conduct. This man, who was deſtitute of every virtue, and whoſe extreme indigence had induced him to undertake the office,

The fatigues he endured, and the bad treatment he met with.

began

began by ſeizing the admiral's effects, and ſending him and his brother into Spain loaded with irons.

The court, on his arrival, were ſhocked at the diſgrace of their admiral, diſavowed the proceedings of their governor, and highly blamed his conduct. They acquitted him of every charge, and promiſed him ample reſtitution, for the injuries he had ſuffered at Hiſpaniola. So that he was ſoon prevailed upon to undertake a fourth voyage, being very deſirous of arriving at the Eaſt Indies, by a weſtern courſe, and returning by the Cape of Good Hope, to ſurround the globe.

With this deſign he ſailed on his fourth voyage, in the month of May 1502. But knowing that his ſhips were not fit for ſo long a voyage, he intended to put in at Hiſpaniola, and there exchange them for ſuch as were more properly adapted for executing his deſign. In this however he was diſappointed, the governor not permitting him to enter the harbour, though this unparallelled refuſal did not hinder him from doing every thing in his power to promote the intereſt of his Majeſty. Columbus, whilſt he navigated and reſided in the Weſt Indies, was extremely diligent in his obſervations upon the nature of the air, the ſeaſons, the meteors, *&c.* and how much each of theſe ſeemed to affect the other; nor was he leſs ſagacious in drawing progno-

His laſt voyage to America.

Columbus predicted the approach of a terrible hurricane.

ſtics from the remarkable appearances in all. At this time he judged from obſervations, that a great hurricane was approaching; and although Obando the governor refuſed him admittance into the harbour, yet perceiving that the fleet was on the point of ſailing for Spain, he generouſly notified the apprehenſions he had of the hurricane, and therefore deſired him to defer their ſailing for ſome days. But this requeſt was ridiculed, and the fleet ſailed immediately from Hiſpaniola.

In the mean time Columbus drew his little fleet as near the ſhore as poſſible; and, in the night-time, one of the moſt terrible hurricanes ever known in that part of the world, came on. The fleet conſiſting of twenty ſhips, which had ſailed contrary to his requeſt, ſuffered the puniſhment due to their temerity, four only eſcaping, while the other ſixteen periſhed. But Columbus's little fleet ſuffered very little damage, providence on this occaſion interpoſing, in a very remarkable manner, in the defence of injured innocence. His character was highly raiſed by the prediction of this ſtorm, and by his behaviour in it; for to his, and his brother's good conduct, under God, the ſafety of his little fleet was juſtly attributed. After he had weathered the ſtorm, he left the iſland in purſuit of further diſcoveries; and in this laſt voyage he diſcovered all the coaſt of Terra Firma, as far as the iſthmus of Darien, where he hoped to have found a paſſage into the South ſeas.

He diſcovered the continent of South America.

In

In this, however, he was diſappointed, but not in the other part of his project; for every where as he advanced, he became more ſenſible of the value of his diſcoveries on the continent. He found the people more civilized, and their country abounding in greater plenty of gold than the iſlanders. He entered a harbour, which from its excellency he called *Porto-bello*, well known ſince as one of the greateſt openings, by which the Spaniſh commerce is carried on between the two worlds. Although the diſcoveries he made in this laſt voyage were of the utmoſt importance to the Spaniſh nation, yet it was the moſt unfortunate Columbus ever knew: for he was obliged to put in at the iſland of Jamaica, (which he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage), and his ſhips being incapable of repairs, he might have ſpent his life there in exile, had not a private perſon at Hiſpaniola, from a real eſteem of his merit, fitted out a ſhip for his relief, after the governor had refuſed him any aſſiſtance.

On his arrival at Hiſpaniola, he found the colony filled with new diſputes and diſorders; but being unwilling to engage any more in affairs of this kind, he haſtened every thing for his departure for Spain, where he at laſt arrived, after ſuffering the greateſt hardſhips and diſtreſs.

He was now grown old, and ſeverely afflicted with the gout. The Queen his patroneſs was dead; and the King, of a cloſe and diſſembling diſpoſition, and a nar- His death.

row

row mind, was the only perſon he had to ſooth his misfortunes, or pay the rewards due to his labours. But he received neither comfort nor reward. The performance of his contract was deferred upon frivolous pretences; and he employed the latter part of his life, as he had done the active part of it, in a court-ſolicitation, the moſt grievous of all employments to any man, the moſt hopeleſs to an old man. Vanquiſhed at laſt by years, fatigues, and diſappointments, he died at Valladolid the 20th of May 1506.

As ſoon as the court heard of his death, orders were given for his being interred with the utmoſt pomp and ſplendour. But the admiral himſelf had given ſome directions concerning his interment, which ſerved to perpetuate the memory of his unjuſt treatment; for he ordered the irons which he had wore, to be put into his coffin with him. His epitaph deviſed, as ſome hiſtorians ſay, by King Ferdinand himſelf, ſuited the dignity of the perſon, and the ſervice he had done to the Spaniſh nation. It conſiſts only of two lines, in Engliſh thus:

Caſtile and Leon to Columbus owe
That world his wiſdom only could beſtow.

After the diſcoveries of Columbus had enlarged the ſphere of induſtry to active minds, ſuch a ſpirit of enterpriſe went abroad, that the Spaniards, in a ſhort ſpace of time, (namely, from the firſt departure of Columbus in 1492, to the entire conqueſt of Chili, which happened in 1541), conquered no leſs than ſeven great

kingdoms,

kingdoms, inhabited by a vaſt number of warlike and wealthy nations, and made them bow under the Spaniſh yoke.

Though nobody doubts of Columbus's being the firſt diſcoverer of the new world, yet he had not the honour of its name; for, in the year 1498, Americus Veſputius, a Florentine, having procured a Spaniſh commiſſion, together with the charts of Columbus, ſailed to the Weſt Indies, and viſited the coaſt of America, though it is uncertain whether he made any new diſcoveries. But being a man of addreſs and great confidence, as well as an able ſeaman and excellent geographer, he found a method of arrogating to himſelf the firſt diſcovery of the continent of America, and called it by his own name, which it has ever ſince retained. The report of the many and great advantages accruing to Spain from the valuable diſcoveries made by Columbus, raiſed an earneſt deſire in other great princes to make ſome experiments of the ſame kind; among the reſt, King Henry VII. of England, who employed a foreigner then reſiding in his dominions. This foreigner was called *John Cabot*, by birth a Venetian, a perſon of a bold and enterpriſing genius, and withal well verſed in navigation. His Majeſty being ſenſible of the great advantages that might accrue to his ſubjects by making diſcoveries in the new world, therefore granted letters patent to Cabot and his

Americus Veſputius viſits the continent of America, and calls it by his own name.

Cabot diſcovers the continent of North America.

his three ſons, and gave orders for fitting him out with all neceſſaries without loſs of time. Thoſe bore date the 5th of March 1496, being the eleventh year of that King's reign. Immediately after obtaining theſe he ſailed from Briſtol, and, in the month of June 1497, diſcovered the iſland of Newfoundland; from thence he ſtood over to the continent, and ſailed all along the coaſt of North America, from Nova Scotia to Florida, taking poſſeſſion of it in name of the Britiſh monarch. Cabot may therefore be juſtly reputed the firſt diſcoverer of the continent of North America.

Alvarez Capralis accidentally diſcovers the Brazils.

Peter Alvarez Capralis, admiral of a fleet belonging to Emanuel King of Portugal, ſteering for the Eaſt Indies in the year 1500, was by a ſtorm driven upon the coaſt of Brazil, which he firſt diſcovered, and which has ſince proved of ſuch immenſe value to that crown. Hence we may infer, that if Columbus had not gone expreſsly in ſearch of the new world eight years before, it would have been diſcovered by chance by this Portugueſe admiral.

It is not my intention to purſue the diſcoveries of America any further here, as we intend to give a ſhort account of the diſcovery and conqueſt of the ſeveral Spaniſh kingdoms and provinces as we proceed in our deſcription of them.

This prodigious tract of land is now divided between ſeveral powers of Europe. The Spaniards,

niards, who firſt diſcovered it, have by far the largeſt and richeſt ſhare, and indeed much more than they have been able to people or cultivate. Their prepoſterous conduct when they firſt ſubdued America, almoſt depopulated it, and gave the natives ſo horrid an idea of their new maſters, that the greateſt part of thoſe that eſcaped, fled to the mountains and foreſts of that extenſive country, where their deſcendents ſtill continue, and often ſally out on their tyrannical maſters, making ſevere repriſals for the injuries they formerly ſuffered. By this means, ſeveral vaſt provinces are almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants, and ſome of the richeſt countries in the world continue uncultivated.

CHAP. II.

Of Spaniſh America in general.

THE common opinion, that the King of Spain hath the largeſt dominions of any prince in the world, is ſo well founded, that no perſon hitherto has ventured to contradict it. His American territories only are ſufficient to juſtify this notion; and in truth, when one conſiders the vaſt extent and prodigious riches of theſe provinces, he cannot but wonder that his Catholic Majeſty is not much more powerful than he appears to be. Without doubt this is owing to nothing but errors in government, which ſhould incline other nations to beware of falling into a like condition, through luxury

and corruption; and ſhould alſo put them upon their guard, with reſpect to a potentate poſſeſſed of ſuch mighty advantages, who may have, in ſome future period, a miniſtry capable of uſing and improving them.

In order to be convinced of the truth of what I have advanced, we need only conſider, that, upon the diſcovery of America, the Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of the moſt extenſive parts of it, and thoſe which moſtly abounded in opulence; from whence they have annually derived ſuch immenſe treaſures, that it may well be ſaid, the kingdom of Old Spain is entirely dependent on New Spain for the ſupport of her finances, ſo as to owe all her former grandeur, and her preſent exiſtence, to her American colonies.

They have in North America all that part of Florida lying to the ſouth of the Britiſh plantations. 2. All New Mexico. 3. Old Mexico, or New Spain, which, on account of its extent, is divided into three audiences or governments, and each of theſe governments ſubdivided into ſeveral provinces. They likewiſe poſſeſs the largeſt and moſt valuable iſlands in the Weſt Indies, *viz.* Cuba, part of Hiſpaniola, and Porto-Rico.

Beſides theſe, they are in poſſeſſion, or at leaſt lay claim to all South America, except the Brazils and Guiana, the former being the property of the Portugueſe, and the French and Dutch have ſeveral ſettlements in the latter. The natives, however, are ſtill in poſſeſſion of ſeveral large

large countries in this ſouthern part of America, of which afterwards. In a word, the Spaniards command in the South ſeas the moſt extended coaſt in the new world, that is, from Cape St Sebaſtian, the moſt northern point of California, to the ſtreights of Magellan, at leaſt 2000 leagues, or between 6 and 7000 miles.

It is an opinion commonly received amongſt us, that the Spaniſh Weſt Indies are very unwholeſome; but, like many other general propoſitions, this may be ſaid to be true and falſe at the ſame time. It is true, a very conſiderable part of Mexico and Peru is ſituated in the torrid zone; yet where they have the advantages of a favourable ſituation, they are both healthy and pleaſant. But, beſides theſe, there are many fine provinces in both the temperate zones; neither can the habitable world boaſt of more delightful or fruitful regions than thoſe of New Mexico in the north, and in Chili and about Buenos-Ayres in the ſouth, as the reader will be informed of afterwards. The truth is, that great part of Terra Firma, and about Porto Bello, is extremely unwholeſome and diſagreeable, and ſo is great part of the ſea-coaſt of Peru, occaſioned by the great rains which fall there at certain ſeaſons; and from hence we form an idea of the reſt, though very unjuſtly. Perhaps too the luxury of the Spaniards, and the inactivity of their lives, may contribute to ſhorten their days, and thereby diſcredit the places they inhabit. But as it is certain, that the Indians before their arrival lived to a good old age, and

many who are temperate do ſo ſtill, hence we may conclude, that if an active and induſtrious ſet of people were ſettled in theſe countries, they would not be much incommoded by the climate.

As to the ſoil of theſe countries in general, it is wonderfully rich and fruitful, producing corn in abundance, and ſuch paſtures as are no where elſe to be ſeen; trees for fruit, beauty, and uſe; ſhrubs odoriferous, and of phyſical virtues; herbs and roots in plenty; and, in ſhort, every thing that can be ſought for, either grows naturally, or may with very little pains be produced here.

If the Spaniſh councils were turned for the encouragement of trade and manufactures, there is in theſe countries ſuch a vaſt variety of valuable commodities, as might, one would think, furniſh the people poſſeſſed of them with inexhauſtible treaſures.

Having now ſpoken of Spaniſh America in general, we will next deſcend to particulars, and treat diſtinctly of its ſeveral kingdoms and provinces, beginning with the Spaniſh iſlands in the Weſt Indies; ſhall next proceed to deſcribe their ſettlements on the continent of North America, as they lie in order from north to ſouth; and the third and fourth part will contain an account of their large and rich poſſeſſions in South America, *&c.*

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of the iſland of Cuba;—its ſituation and extent;—climate and ſoil;—produce and trade.

IN that part of the Atlantic ocean, commonly called *the North ſea*, which divides North from South America, there are ſcattered a great multitude of iſlands, to which the Spaniards have given the general name of *Antilles*, and they uſually divide them into larger and leſſer; among the former are Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and Porto-Rico, which are to make the ſubject of this and the two following chapters.

Cuba, the moſt conſiderable of the great Antilles, and, to ſay the truth, one of the fineſt in the univerſe, lies between the latitudes of 19 deg. 50 min. and 23 deg. 20 min. north, and between 73 deg. 50 min. and 85 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude. It is about 680 miles from Cape St Antonio on the ſouth-weſt to Cape Mayze on the ſouth-eaſt, but very narrow in proportion, not being in ſome places above forty miles in breadth, and where wideſt not exceeding 120. It lies about ſixty miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, or St Domingo, and ſeventy-five to the northward of Jamaica, commanding the gulfs of Mexico and Florida, and the windward paſſage; whence it has been, with great propriety, called the key of the Weſt Indies.

It was diſcovered by the famous Columbus in 1492, who called it Ferdinandina, from King Ferdinand

Ferdinand V. from whom he had his commiſſion, but it ſoon recovered its American name, *viz.* Cuba. This iſland was not conquered till 1511, when the Spaniards cut off near five millions of the natives, by the moſt horrid barbarities that ever ſtained the page of hiſtory. We may, in ſome meaſure, form an idea of thoſe cruelties from a reply that was made to the Spaniards by one of the Indian caciques, whom they had condemned to be burnt alive. The worthy Biſhop of Chiapa (who was an eye-witneſs to their ſhocking barbarities, and publiſhed an account of them) informs us, that when they were tying this prince to the ſtake, a Franciſcan friar told him, "That if he would "embrace their religion, he ſhould go to hea-"ven; but if not, he muſt burn in hell for "ever. Whereupon the prince aſked, if there "were any Spaniards in heaven. The friar an-"ſwered in the affirmative. He then replied, "If it be ſo, I will rather be with the devils in "hell than with the Spaniards in heaven; for "their cruelty is ſuch, that none can be more "miſerable than where they are."

The Spaniſh cruelty towards the Indians.

The true reaſon, in all probability, why the Spaniards deſtroyed, with ſo little pity, ſo vaſt a number of innocent people, was a covetous deſire of poſſeſſing the whole iſland, with all its real and ſuppoſed riches; for at this time they fancied, that the parts of the iſland poſſeſſed by the natives were exceſſively rich in gold, of which, while they ſuffered them to live, the

Spaniards

Spaniards did really receive a very conſiderable ſhare: but ſince the extirpation of the Indians there has been very little, and at preſent there is ſcarce any gold to be found at all, which ſome conſider as a judgment on the Spaniards for their unparallelled inhumanity. However, this much is certain, that, by the extirpation of the natives, the greateſt part of the iſland lies waſte and uncultivated, there being no proportion between the number of the inhabitants and the extent of the iſland.

The only winter known here is in the months of July and Auguſt, when the ſun is almoſt vertical; then they have great rains, and often violent ſtorms, which greatly mitigate the extreme heat of the climate. The faireſt ſeaſon is when the ſun is fartheſt removed from them, and then it is hotteſt in the morning; for towards noon a ſea-breeze ſprings up, which blows pretty briſk till the evening; ſo that the Europeans, who are generally troubled with the ſcorching heat of theſe climates, confeſs themſelves agreeably refreſhed by theſe cooling gales. The trade-winds in thoſe ſeas blow from the north-eaſt. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, they have briſk winds at north and north-weſt, which in December and January often turn into ſtorms, though this is called their fair ſeaſon. Seaſons.

As to the ſoil, it is ſaid to have in general the beſt land of any iſland in America, and is capable of producing prodi- Soil and products.

gious

gious quantities of all the commodities furniſhed by that quarter of the world; particularly, ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, cotton-trees, with abundance of large vines, and excellent tobacco; beſides plenty of pine-apples, plantains, bananas, guavas, and lemons: here are alſo many large walks of cacao-trees, and good ſugar-works, worked by horſe and water mills, and are ſaid to make the beſt ſugars in the Weſt Indies, though in no great quantity, for want of hands to cultivate the canes: here are mines of copper, which furniſh the Spaniſh plantations with metal for all their braſs guns; and gold-duſt being frequently found in the ſands of the rivers, it is conjectured that there are mines of gold, if not of ſilver too, in the mountains, of which there runs a large ridge from the eaſt to the weſt end of the iſland; but the Spaniards having deſtroyed all the natives, they either never diſcovered where theſe mines were, or never opened them for fear of an invaſion.

From theſe hills there run down to the north and ſouth many rivers; and amongſt them are two pretty conſiderable ones, which, beſides their beſtowing verdure and coolneſs as they paſs, are full of fiſh, and thoſe very large and good. The ſeas and rivers here alſo abound with great numbers of alligators; it is thought that there are more of this deſtructive ſpecies of creatures here than in any other part of the known world.

Adjacent

Adjacent to this iſland are great conveniencies both for making ſalt and catching fiſh. It alſo abounds with horſes, mules, ſheep, wild boars, hogs, and cattle of a larger and better breed than in any other part of America, with prodigious multitudes of parrots, partridges with blue heads, and all manner of tame and wild fowls, as alſo large tortoiſes.

The black cattle brought hither formerly by the Spaniards have multiplied to ſuch a prodigious degree, that large herds of them run wild in the woods, and are killed purely for their hides and tallow, which they ſend to Spain, and the fleſh being cut in pieces is cured, which ſerves as proviſions for ſhips. Here are quarries of flints, and fountains of bitumen, which is uſed in chalking ſhips inſtead of pitch, as well as in medicinal compoſitions.

Tobacco is one of the principal commodities in this iſland, abundance of which, both in leaf and ſnuff, is exported from the Havannah to New Spain, Coſta-Rica, and the South Sea, beſides what is ſhipped off for Old Spain. Another of its trading commodities is Campeachy wood, which the merchants here import from the bay of the ſame name, and Honduras, which they put on board the flota for Spain, together with their hides, tallow, ſugar, tobacco, *&c.* Trading commodities.

The commerce of this iſland, Hiſpaniola, and Porto-Rico, with the Spaniſh continent, is carried on by the barlevento fleet, conſiſting of ſix ſhips of good burden and force, who an-

nually make the tour of theſe iſlands, and the coaſt of Terra Firma, not only to carry on the commerce between thoſe places, but to clear the ſea of pirates and illicit traders. Now and then too a regiſter-ſhip from Old Spain is bound to one or other of theſe iſlands.

Upon the whole, Cuba is a very pleaſant, rich, and fertile iſland, but has at preſent more churches than farms, more prieſts than planters, and more lazy bigots than uſeful labourers: and to this it is owing that the largeſt iſland in the Weſt Indies, with a luxuriant ſoil, beſides food for its inhabitants, which is eaſier produced and obtained here than perhaps in any other part of the world, does not produce for exportation, including even their hides and tallow, tobacco and ſnuff, near the value of our little iſland of Antigua. So great is the difference between ſloth and induſtry, tyranny and liberty.

The iſland has ſeveral towns; and St Jago, though a ſmall place, is called the capital, it being the ſee of the biſhop, though he generally reſides at the Havannah, which is the chief and moſt important place on the iſland.

The Havannah.

The Havannah is ſituated near the mouth of an excellent harbour, on the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland. It was built by Diego de Velaſquez, in the beginning of the ſixteenth century. According to the lateſt maps of theſe parts, it lies in 23 deg. 12 min. of north latitude, conſequently within 20 min. of the tropic of Cancer, and in 82°. 13. of weſt longitude,

about

about 190 miles almoſt direct ſouth of Cape Florida, and conſequently commands the gulf of that name.

This city ſtands in the moſt fruitful part of the iſland, and the only part where there are any farms, the reſt being almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants. It is built on the weſt ſide of the harbour, in a delightful plain along the ſhore, which curves ſo much, that above half of it is waſhed by the ſea, and the reſt by two branches of the river Lagida. The ſtone buildings are elegant, but not lofty; the ſtreets are narrow, but ſtraight and clean; and the houſes very handſome, but ill furniſhed. Here are eleven churches and monaſteries, and two handſome hoſpitals. Near the middle of the town is a ſpacious ſquare, ſurrounded with uniform buildings. The churches are rich and magnificent; the lamps, candleſticks, and ornaments of the altar, being of gold and ſilver. Some of the lamps are ſaid to be of the moſt curious workmanſhip, and weigh near a hundred weight. The recollects church, which ſtands on the beſt ground in the city, has twelve beautiful chapels in it; and in the monaſtery are cells for fifty fathers. The church of St Clare has ſeven altars, all adorned with plate, and the nunnery contains an hundred women and ſervants, all clothed in blue. The church belonging to the Auguſtines has thirteen altars, that of St John de Dios nine, with an hoſpital for ſoldiers, of 12,000 pieces of eight revenue.

This city is the ſeat of the governor and

captain-general of Cuba, and of the royal officers, as well as of an aſſeſſor for the aſſiſtance of the governor and captain-general of the Indies.

It is computed that the number of inhabitants here is upwards of 26,000. They are repreſented as a more polite and ſociable people, than the inhabitants of any of the ports on the continent; and of late imitate the French, both in their dreſs and manners. One part of the iſland is under the juriſdiction of this city, as the other is under that of St Jago; but the diſtrict belonging to the Havannah is by far the beſt cultivated, and has moſt towns and villages in it.

The port of the Havannah is ſaid to be the moſt frequented of any belonging to the Spaniards, and one of the fineſt in the world. It is ſo large that a thouſand ſail of ſhips may ride in it commodiouſly and ſafely, no wind being capable to hurt them, ſo that there is hardly any occaſion for anchors or cables. At the ſame time it is ſo deep, that the largeſt veſſels commonly anchor cloſe under the ſhore, where there is about ſix fathoms water: the entrance, which has neither bar nor ſhoals to obſtruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but ſo narrow that only one ſhip can go in at a time. The harbour into which it leads, is a long ſquare, lying almoſt north and ſouth.

This city and port is, in fact, of the greateſt importance to the Spaniards of all their cities in America, as being the place of rendezvous

for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain, as it lies at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, through which they are all obliged to paſs. Here the navy of Spain, ſtationed in the Indies, ride; and here the galleons, flota, and other merchant-ſhips from other ports, both of the continent and iſlands, meet in September, to take in proviſions and water, with part of their lading, and for the convenience of returning to Spain in a body. A continual fair is held here till their departure, which generally happens before the end of the month, when proclamation is made, forbidding any belonging to the fleet to ſtay in town on pain of death, and accordingly, on firing a warning-gun, they all retire on board. This fleet is reckoned the richeſt in the world, carrying with them a cargo worth near ſeven millions Sterling.

Its importance and fortifications.

As this place is of ſuch great importance, it is natural to imagine, that it ſhould be properly fortified, in order to render it capable of making a ſtrong defence, in caſe of an attack by a powerful enemy.

The Spaniards were ſettled here for a conſiderable time, befor they did any thing in order to render it a place of ſtrength: for, in the year 1536, it was taken by a French pirate, and was of ſo inconſiderable a value, that it was ranſomed for ſeven hundred pieces of eight. It was ſoon after taken by the Engliſh cruiſers, and a ſecond time by the French:

nor

nor was the importance of it thoroughly understood, or any care taken to fortify it, till the reign of Philip II. of Spain. What was then done, proved not sufficient; and most of the fortifications were in a bad condition, when Francis Coreal was there in 1666, and were very little better when he visited it again twenty years afterwards. But since the accession of the house of Bourbon to the throne of Spain, more pains have been taken about it, as will appear by the following account of its present condition.

On the land-side, the city has a wall fortified with bastions, and a castle on the side towards the harbour, at the mouth of which are also two other strong castles, supposed sufficient to defend the passage against any number of ships.

The chief and strongest of these castles is called *El-Morro*, the headland, from the point on which it stands on the east side of the entrance of the harbour, but the British sailors call it *Moor Castle*, and others *El-muro*, the wall. It is situated at the foot of two hills, and built on a rock, in which a ditch is cut, filled with sea-water. It is of a triangular figure, with three large bastions, and mounted with forty pieces of cannon, twenty-four pounders. From this castle there runs a wall or line mounted with twelve very long pieces of cannon, lying almost level with the water; these are all thirty-six pounders, and most of them brass, being called, by way of eminence,

the

the twelve apoſtles. At the point betwixt this caſtle and the ſea, ſtands a tower, having a round lantern at the top, where a centinel continually watches, to ſee what ſhips are approaching the harbour, and of which he gives notice by hoiſting as many flags as they are in number. The ſecond caſtle at the mouth of the harbour is called the *Pontal*, and by ſome authors *Moſa de Maria*, the Virgin Mary's table. It ſtands on a plain ground, on the ſide of the entrance oppoſite to the former, is a regular fortification, with four baſtions, and well mounted with cannon. The third fortification is called by the Spaniards *El-Fuerty*, or the fort, by way of eminence, to diſtinguiſh it from the other two. It is a ſmall, but ſtrong work, near the end of the narrow channel on the weſt ſide of the harbour, having four regular baſtions, and a platform, mounted with about ſixty large pieces of braſs cannon. Beſides theſe three forts there are two others, of twelve guns each, ſituated on the ſhore four or five miles from the port. That on the eaſt ſide is called *Cajemar*, and the other on the weſt *Chorrera*.

From the preceding account it is evident, that though the Havannah is well fortified, and perhaps ſtronger than any other place belonging to the Spaniards in the Weſt Indies, yet it is far from being impregnable, as ſome have pretended. A few regiments, if landed on the weſt ſide of the city, would, in all probability, ſoon become maſters of it, as the walls on the land-ſide

The practicability of taking it.

are

are low and feeble. Nor could either of the caſtles aboved eſcribed prevent their approaches.

On the north ſide of the entrance of the harbour is a hill that commands the town, and which might be very eaſily ſecured, as there was very lately no fortification upon it. From this hill therefore the town might ſoon be reduced, and then the forts could not long defend themſelves, when attacked from the land by the army, and from the ſea by the ſhips.

The loſs of this place would ruin the Spaniſh trade, and all their ports on the eaſt ſide of the continent would eaſily fall into the hands of the conquerors, if they purſued the blow with reſolution and intrepidity.

With the Havannah all Cuba would fall with it; and were we in ſuch a condition at the concluſion of the war, as to inſiſt upon having it yielded to us at a peace, it would fully repay our expenſe, and ſufficiently ſupply us with ſugar for home-conſumption and exportation.

Beſides, our poſſeſſions in the Weſt Indies, as well as our trade thither, are ſo greatly intereſted in the poſſeſſion of this port, that the conqueſt of it would prove of the higheſt advantage to our commercial intereſt. The preſervation of Jamaica makes this more eſpecially highly requiſite; for being ſituate between Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and the continent, it is liable to be invaded from theſe quarters at once; and its ſecurity is the more precarious, as the French are alſo poſſeſſed of the weſt part of Hiſpaniola.

On

On the other hand, were we poſſeſſed of the Havannah, our ſhips both there and at Jamaica would be always ready to pick up the ſtraggling ſhips of the Spaniards, as they could not eaſily keep in a body without the help of this port.

The other places in this iſland, are, 1. Santa Cruz, ſixty-three miles eaſt of the Havannah, on the ſame coaſt; it has a very good harbour, at the bottom of the bay of Matazos. Santa Cruz. 2. Porto-del-principe, a ſea-port town on the northern coaſt, 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the Havannah, and 186 north-weſt of Baracoa. It was formerly a large and rich town, but being taken by Capt. Morgan with his bucaneers, after a ſtout reſiſtance, it never has recovered itſelf ſince. Porto-del-principe. 3. Baracoa, at the north-eaſt part of the iſland, has a good harbour for ſmall veſſels, but will not admit large ſhips. Baracoa. 4. Cumberland harbour in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, was formerly called *Walthenam*, but Adm. Vernon and Gen. Wentworth, who arrived here in July 1741, with a ſquadron and land-forces, made an encampment, and erected a fort on the ſhore, and gave it the preſent name, in honour of the Duke of Cumberland, which it has ever ſince retained. Cumberland harbour. This is an excellent harbour, capable of ſheltering the largeſt fleet, and ſupplied with a fine freſh-water river navigable ſeveral leagues up; the country round it is healthy, and abounds with cattle and proviſions. This harbour is about

twenty leagues eaſt from St Jago de Cuba. The Britiſh forces continued here till the end of November, without effecting any thing, and then returned to Jamaica. 5. St Jago, the capital, though not the chief place on the iſland, ſtands at the bottom of a ſpacious bay, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, about two leagues from the ſea. The entrance of the bay is narrow for ſeveral miles, but within are many little iſlands, which form a commodious harbour, and ſhelter from ſtorms. It was built by Velaſquez, the firſt conqueror, who made it the ſeat of his bloody government, and there maſſacred many thouſands of the poor Indians. The city is ſtill in being as a biſhop's ſee, with a cathedral, where the canons reſide, but the biſhop lives at the Havannah. The trade is now wholly removed from this place, and the city turned into a poor village.

St Jago.

Beſides theſe there is another ſpacious harbour, which lies to the weſt of the Havanah, called *Honda*, and is very little inferior to the former in any reſpect, though, like the reſt formerly mentioned, it is very little frequented. There are alſo many creeks around the iſland, which might eaſily be improved into better ports than moſt on the continent, but for want of inhabitants they are neglected. For the ſame reaſon the copper mines are not wrought to any conſiderable advantage, and perhaps would not be wrought at all, were it not for this reaſon, that out of them is taken the metal requiſite for making the braſs cannon, not only for the

fortifications

fortifications here, but throughout the Weſt Indies.

CHAP. IV.

A deſcription of the iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St Domingo.

THis iſland was called by the natives *Hayti*; but the Spaniards, when Columbus diſcovered it in 1492, called it *Hiſpaniola*, or *Little Spain*. But Columbus built a city in 1494, which he called *St Domingo*. That name was firſt extended to that quarter of the iſland, and in proceſs of time to the whole, ſo that it is now generally called *St Domingo*. It is ſituated between Cuba and Porto-Rico, having the former on the north-weſt, Jamaica on the ſouth-weſt, and Porto-Rico on the eaſt, from which it is ſeparated only by a narrow channel. It lies between the latitudes of 17 deg. 37 min. and 20 deg. north, and between 67 deg. 35 min. and 74 deg. 15 min. of weſt longitude, being about 400 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and upwards of 120 where broadeſt; and about 1500 in circuit. The climate here is very hot, but greatly mitigated by the trade-winds, and friendly ſea-breezes. It alſo rains exceſſively at ſome times, but not in all places alike. Although the climate agrees but indifferently with ſtrangers, yet the inhabitants live in good health, and to a great age, many of them exceeding

eighty, and ſome reaching to one hundred and twenty.

This iſland, if we except Cuba, juſtly claims the precedency of all the other iſlands in the Weſt Indies, both with reſpect to extent and fertility: all the commodities found in that quarter of the world, are produced here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Here are extenſive foreſts of cabbage-trees; and the mountainous parts of the iſland are covered with ſtately oaks, palms, elms, pines, and other trees taller and larger than in the other iſlands. The fruits here are not only pleaſant to the eye, but moſt delicious to the taſte, particularly the ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots, *&c.*

This country has likewiſe prodigious fine plains of vaſt extent, and extreme fertility, either covered with noble and beautiful foreſts of timber and fruit trees, or paſtured by vaſt numbers of horned cattle, ſheep, and hogs. The hunters ſhoot the beeves here, as they do in Cuba, for their hides and tallow; and with regard to the pork, they ſtrip the fleſh from the bones, and jerk it, as is done at Jamaica. This iſland is admirably well watered with rivulets as well as navigable rivers, which are well ſtored with various kinds of excellent fiſh, as the coaſt is with crocodiles and tortoiſes.

The Spaniards by degrees conquered the natives, and in battle and cold blood deſtroyed no leſs than three millions of men, women, and children.

The cruelty of the Spaniards.

While

While the natives enjoyed their poſſeſſions, they cultivated their lands for the Spaniards, ſupplied them with fiſh, and ſome quantities of gold; during which time the Spaniards lived much happier, and in greater affluence, than they have done ever ſince; whereas now the far greater part of what the Spaniards claim, rather than poſſeſs, is deſert, and yields little or nothing for want of cultivation.

As this iſland was among the firſt diſcovered by the Spaniards, ſo it was the centre of their commerce in that part of the world for a conſiderable time, and was in a very thriving condition; but after the conqueſt of Peru and Chili, and the large additions made to their territories on the continent of North America, they neglected this iſland; which encouraged the French, about the middle of the laſt century, to fix themſelves on the weſtern part of it, which they effected in the following manner.

The French fix themſelves in the weſt part of this iſland.

After the Spaniards had ruined the firſt colony at St Chriſtopher's, they brought upon themſelves, by this act, a very heavy revenge for the injuſtice of it. Several of the French inhabitants, who were expelled from this iſland, being reduced to great indigence, began to think of deſperate courſes; and entering into a confederacy with ſome vagrant Engliſh, Dutch, and other outcaſts of all nations, but at the ſame time reſolute fellows, and not deſtitute of men of capacity amongſt them, they began a piratical

tical war upon the Spaniards. At firſt they ſatisfied themſelves with taking their ſhips, and deſtroying their trade, which they did effectually; but being encouraged and ſtrengthened by this ſucceſs, they landed upon the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, burning and plundering the open country. Their boldneſs and number increaſing with their ſucceſs, they aſſaulted and took ſome of their ſtrongeſt fortreſſes, and moſt opulent towns. They took Porto-Bello, Campeachy, Maracaibo, and the fortreſs of Chagra, and they even took the city of Panama by ſtorm, after defeating an army which came to beat them off. In all which places they gained an incredible booty, and committed the moſt terrible cruelties. Another party of theſe pirates paſſed the ſtreights of Magellan, and entering the South ſeas, turned the whole coaſt of Peru, Chili, and Mexico into one ſcene of deſolation; every where attended with ſucceſs, becauſe every where acting with a bravery and conduct, that in any other cauſe had merited the higheſt honours.

The pirates, whom we called *bucaneers* improperly, the French denominated *flibuſtiers*, from the Dutch fly-boats, in which they made their firſt expeditions. The bucaneers are no more than perſons who hunt wild cattle in America for their hides and tallow. Some of theſe joined the flibuſtiers in their firſt expeditions, and from them we named the whole body *bucaneers*. It is ſurpriſing to think upon the many brave and heroic exploits performed

ed by a ſmall body of theſe bucaneers, when we conſider what armaments from England, Holland, and France have been ſent at different times to America, whoſe remains moſtly returned without honour or advantage. Theſe people brought their prizes and plunder frequently into Jamaica, by which they greatly enriched that iſland. Others finding that the Spaniards were very weak in Hiſpaniola, and that they had in a manner deſerted a conſiderable part of the iſland, made it a place of rendezvous. They who hunted the cattle, ſaw the hideous deſerts left by the Spaniſh tyranny a proper place for exerciſing their profeſſion. To theſe two ſorts of people were ſoon added a third, who were ſome of the French in the Leſſer Antilles, who finding how much might be made by ſupplying a ſort of people who expended largely, and were not very exact in their bargains, and perceiving that no part of America afforded a better ſoil, paſſed over to this iſland, and exerciſed here their buſineſs of planters and merchants. Theſe three ſorts of people, mutually in want of each other, lived in very good harmony. The Spaniards diſlodged them ſeveral times; but they ſtill returned, and with new ſtrength; ſo that it was with difficulty, and after a long diſpute, that the Spaniards were able to retain one part of the iſland.

The court of France ſaw the progreſs of theſe people ſilently. Whenever complaints were made, they diſavowed their proceedings,

and

and reſolved not to break meaſures with Spain for the ſake of an object which they were not ſure they could hold, and the advantages of which were yet doubtful; but when they found the French in Hiſpaniola numerous, ſtrong, and wealthy, they owned them as ſubjects, ſent them a governor and regular forces to keep them ſo, and to defend them in what they had done: the old method of piracy was ſtill connived at, whilſt their trade increaſed, and the plantations extended.

And though the Spaniards were glad to live upon good terms with them, yet they always looked upon them as uſurpers. And to ſay the truth, the French had no legal right to any part of it till the year 1697, when the Spaniards yielded that part of the iſland to them, to the weſt of Monte Chriſto on the north, and Cape Mongon on the ſouth, by the treaty of Ryſwick, and the boundaries betwixt theſe two nations were ſettled by a line drawn acroſs the country from north to ſouth.

The French here are ſaid to equal, if not outnumber the Spaniards in the other part of the iſland, and have improved their ſettlement to great perfection, which indeed is the beſt they have in the Weſt Indies. They have ſo many horſes here, that they formerly ſupplied their neighbouring colonies with them; beſides, they have plenty of wild horſes and wild hogs, of the breed firſt brought over from Spain. In the barren and rocky parts of the iſland are mines of gold, but are not worked now, though

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it is judged, they not only contain thoſe of gold, but mines of ſilver, copper, and iron: but the French wiſely think, that their labour is better beſtowed on the culture of the plains for theſe rich commodities, which vend ſo well in Europe, than in the purſuit of mines, really more precarious in their profits, and which yield a wealth after all of a leſs uſeful kind.

For many years its principal trade conſiſted in tobacco, which employed a great number of ſhips; but ſugar is now become the ſtaple commodity, which is reckoned extraordinary fine, and generally ſells dearer than any other ſugar produced in the neighbouring iſlands. The French have increaſed ſo quickly here, that in the year 1726 they reckoned, that on this iſland they had no leſs than 100,000 negroes, and 30,000 whites; that they made 60,000 hogſheads of ſugar of 500 weight each; that the indigo was half as much in value as the ſugar; that they exported large quantities of cotton, and that they had ſent beſides to France cacao and ginger in tolerable plenty. Since that time they have raiſed coffee here to a very great amount; and not this article only, but every other branch of their commercial products has increaſed to a degree truly aſtoniſhing. Towards the concluſion of the laſt war, a Spaniſh writer, who was well informed, reckons the produce of the plantations near Cape Françoiſe, the capital of French Hiſpaniola, and which were exported from that ſingle town, at 30,000 tons in ſugar, indigo, tobacco,

Trading commodities.

and coffee. This export, at the loweſt calculation, cannot be of leſs value than 600,000 pounds Sterling. If to this we add the exports of the two port-towns of Leogane and Petit Guaves, and the other inferior ones, which certainly do not ſend out leſs than the capital, on this low eſtimation we find the exported produce of this iſland to be worth 1,200,000 pounds annually; which, great as it is, is certainly under-rated. But there is another branch of their trade, if poſſible, more advantageous to the mother-country, the contraband, which they carry on with the Spaniards, wholly in the manufactures of France, and for which they receive their returns in ſilver. The above-mentioned author, from the moſt authentic information, tells us, that this trade returns annually to France no leſs than two millions of dollars.

The moſt noted places in the French part of the iſland, as they lie from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, are,

1. St Lewis, about ſix leagues to the north-eaſt of the iſle of Vache, and twenty-five from Petit Guaves, is a ſmall iſland, having a good harbour, where they erected a fort about fifty years ago. This iſland is ſeparated from the main land of St Domingo by a channel not three quarters of a mile in breadth. The town and fort was deſtroyed in the year 1737 by a dreadful hurricane, but is ſince repaired.

The iſland of St Lewis.

2. Vache, or Cows Iſland, is about three leagues

leagues diſtant from the main land of the great iſland, is about five or ſix leagues in length; its ſoil is very good, and has ſeveral tolerable harbours, ſome of which are capable of receiving large ſhips. Vache iſland.

3. Donna Maria bay, at the weſt end of the iſland, is ſix leagues north-eaſt of Cape Tiberon. Here the King's ſhips generally ſtop for wood and water. All the weſt part of this iſland, from this place to Cape St Nicholas, abounds with fine bays and commodious harbours, ſome of which are as good as any in England. The bay of Donna Maria.

4. Petit Guaves is a port-town, ſituated on a large bay on the weſt part of the iſland. Here the French carry on a very conſiderable trade. Petit Guaves.

5. Leogane, which gives name to a principality, is another port on the ſame bay, where the French built a new town about half a league from the ſea. This town is the reſidence of the governor-general, the intendant, and other officers; the ſeat of the royal judicature of the ſuperior council of this part of the iſland. The French alſo erected a fort on the ſhore to defend the ſhipping. There are ſeveral deſert iſlands in this bay, the chief of which is Gonave, about ſeven or eight leagues in length, is very habitable, having a rich ſoil and a pure air, but is attended with this diſadvantage, of having not a drop of water upon it but what falls from the heavens. Leogane.

6. Port-Paix was formerly the reſidence of the governor, and the moſt conſiderable place in the weſt part of the iſland; till it was entirely ruined in the reign of King William by the Engliſh and Spaniards. This was the firſt place the French took after they had ſettled on the iſland of Tortuga, which lies oppoſite to it. This iſland is about twenty miles diſtant from Port-Paix, and is pretty large, producing excellent timber; and the ſoil, where duly cultivated, abundantly prolific. Columbus named it *Tortuga*, on account of the vaſt number of tortoiſes he found there.

Port-Paix.

7. There is one place ſtill to be mentioned, namely, Cape Françoiſe, which is ſituated on the northern part of the iſland, upon a very fine harbour. The French often call it *the Cape*, by way of eminence. It was twice deſtroyed by the Engliſh and Spaniards in the beginning of King William's reign, but is ſince elegantly rebuilt, and contains about 8000 inhabitants, blacks and whites. The country adjacent to this town is remarkably fertile, and exceeding pleaſant, producing prodigious quantities of indigo and ſugar, *&c.*

Cape Françoiſe.

The eaſt part of this charming iſland is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, who poſſeſs the largeſt and beſt ſhare of it. Their capital town is St Domingo; it is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, at the mouth of the river Hayna, in a fine plain, which renders it extremely pleaſant, and ſhews it to great advantage from the ſea. It is a large well-built

St Domingo.

city,

city, and contains ſeveral edifices more magnificent than is uſual in the Indies. It has a fine cathedral, ſeven large monaſteries, and two nunneries. The governor-general of the Spaniſh iſlands reſides here, as alſo the judges of the royal courts; which makes it the ſupreme ſeat of juſtice, and thereby ſecures it from falling into ruin, as otherwiſe it would certainly do through the loſs of trade. Beſides, it is alſo the ſeat of an archbiſhop, to whom the biſhops of the Conception in this iſland, of St John de Porto-Rico, of St Jago de Cuba, of Venezuela in New Caſtile, and of Honduras, are ſuffragans; whence it is eaſy to conceive, that its principal inhabitants are lawyers and clergy. It has a good port, and the greateſt part of the trade that is carried on by the Spaniards is here. Its ſituation is vaſtly delightful, having a large navigable river on the weſt, the ocean on the ſouth, and a pleaſant fruitful country on the north and eaſt. In the year 1586 this city was taken by Sir Francis Drake, who kept poſſeſſion of it a whole month, and then burnt a part of it, but ſpared the reſt, on the inhabitants agreeing to give him 60,000 pieces of eight, by way of ranſom. It quickly recovered its luſtre, and would have maintained it if trade had not decayed; as it is it makes a good appearance, and the number of its inhabitants, including people of all complexions, negroes as well as Spaniards, is thought to exceed 25,000, and ſome ſay there are many more. There were other cities in this part of the iſland, which

which formerly made a conſiderable figure, ſuch as that of the Conception, which is a biſhop's ſee, St Jago Cavalleros, inhabited by bucaneers or hunters; and then as to ports, they had Puerta-de-la-Plata, and many others, which were ſo often deſtroyed by pirates, that at length they ſunk into fiſhing villages, no longer worth taking. Of late years, however, it is ſaid, the Spaniſh affairs in this iſland are on the mending hand.

During the uſurpation of Oliver Cromwell, an armament was ſent againſt Hiſpaniola in order to reduce it. The generals appointed for this expedition, were Penn and Venables, the former for the marine and the latter for the land ſervice: and a number of commiſſioners were added, as a check upon both. They embarked at Portſmouth, and at length arrived before Hiſpaniola; but their place for landing on that iſland was ill choſen. The army had forty miles to march before they could come to action, and the ſoldiers without order, without heart, fainting and dying by the exceſſive heat of the climate, and the want of neceſſary proviſions. They were alſo diſheartened, by the animoſity between the generals and commiſſioners: and the cowardice, and diſcontent of their officers afforded an eaſy victory to a handful of Spaniards; ſo that they were obliged to retire with great ignominy and loſs.

But the principal commanders, a little reconciled by their misfortunes, and fearing to return to England without effecting any thing,

reſolved

reſolved to make an attempt on Jamaica. They accordingly laid ſiege to St Jago de la Vega, now Spaniſh-town, the capital of the iſland; and after a long ſiege, in the 1656, the town, with the whole iſland, ſurrendered; which made ample amends for the failure of the former.

Here we may obſerve, that animoſities and quarrels between the principal commanders of an army or navy are generally attended with bad conſequences, namely, loſs and ignominy. Witneſs the unhappy ſtory of Matthews and Leſtock, Vernon and Wentworth, with many other inſtances which might have been mentioned. We may likewiſe obſerve, that our remarkable ſucceſſes ſince the commencement of this preſent war, have in a great meaſure been owing to the beautiful harmony and unanimity which has upon all occaſions ſubſiſted between our officers and principal commanders.

Before we leave this iſland, it will be neceſſary to take notice of one particular not yet mentioned, namely, the ſtreight between the iſlands of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, which is about eighteen leagues over, and well known to us by the name of *the windward paſſage*; by which our ſhips ſometimes return from Jamaica. But as this paſſage is both difficult and dangerous, it is ſeldom they make choice of it; but, on the contrary, ſail quite round the iſland of Cuba, and ſo through the gulf of Florida.

The windward paſſage.

Hence, in a few words, the importance of keeping

keeping theſe paſſages free and open is made evident; for otherwiſe, not only our navigation ſuffers, but by degrees the inhabitants of Jamaica muſt be ruined, and that valuable iſland be in danger of being taken from us.

CHAP. V.

The iſland of Porto-Rico; its climate and ſoil—produce and trade, &c.

ST John de Porto-Rico, though it be leſs than either Cuba or Hiſpaniola, is however a very fine iſland. Its length, from eaſt to weſt, is about 150 miles, and its breadth about 50. The middle part of the iſland is in the latitude of 18 deg. 14 min. north, and is diſtant about forty miles to the eaſt of Hiſpaniola. The Indian name of it was Borinquen; and Columbus, who diſcovered it in the year 1493, called it *St John the Baptiſt*: but the chief town being afterwards built upon a harbour called *Rico*, or rich, which ſome ſuppoſe was ſo named from its excellence, the whole iſland ever ſince has been called *Porto-Rico*.

The Spaniards conquer and extipate the natives.

It coſt the Spaniards a good deal of trouble to reduce this iſland, the inhabitants being a brave and warlike people, and extremely fond of liberty. By degrees, however, and by the mighty advantages they had over them in the art of war, theſe new comers not only conquered, but entirely extirpated the natives, though

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at their firſt arrival they were not leſs than 600,000. We are informed by a certain Spaniſh writer, that they hunted theſe unhappy people with dogs, trained up for the purpoſe; and that they often ſet them on to tear men, women, and children for their paſtime, if they would not ſubmit to all the drudgery they put upon them. The natural conſequence of ſuch inhumane conduct was ſoon viſible; for the deſtruction of the natives proved the ruin of the iſland; and there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of gold to be met with here, which formerly was found in vaſt quantities, and for the ſake of which theſe innocent people were ſlaughtered, and ſuch effects muſt in the nature of things always attend on ſuch baſe and bloody expedients.

Seaſons.

The rains which generally render the ſeaſon unhealthy, fall in June, July, and Auguſt, when the weather would be otherwiſe extremely hot. About midſummer and the beginning of harveſt violent hurricanes (the general ſcourge of theſe climes) are frequent, when the plants ſuffer greatly by the north-eaſt wind.

Soil and products.

The ſoil, which is beautifully diverſified with woods, hills, valleys, and plains, is extremely fertile, abounding with excellent meadows, well ſtored with cattle, which were originally brought from Spain. A ridge of mountains runs through the iſland from eaſt to weſt, from whence iſſue many brooks and rivers, which water the plains, and clothe

them with the fineſt of paſtures. The deſcents of theſe hills are covered with trees of various kinds, proper for building ſhips and other uſeful purpoſes.

Porto-Rico.

The capital of the iſland is the city of Porto-Rico, which ſtands on the north ſide of it, on a ſmall iſland joined to the continent by a cauſey, which runs directly croſs the harbour. The city is both large and well built; it is the ſee of a biſhop, and the reſidence of the King of Spain's governor, and is better inhabited than moſt Spaniſh cities; the true reaſon of which is its being the centre of the illicit trade carried on by the Britiſh and French with the King of Spain's ſubjects, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the laws, and the many precautions taken to prevent it. There is a ſtrong citadel built on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the city, which commands and defends it; beſides, there is a very ſtrong caſtle, which protects the port. The harbour is very good, and the largeſt ſhips may lie in it with the utmoſt ſafety. In the year 1595, Sir Francis Drake was here, who burnt all the ſhips; but foreſeeing, that he could not be able to keep the place without abandoning all his other deſigns, therefore left it. Three years afterwards the Earl of Cumberland reduced it, and had ſome thoughts of keeping poſſeſſion of the ſame; but loſing 400 of his men in the ſpace of a month by a contagious diſeaſe, he was glad to depart, carrying with him ſeventy pieces of cannon,

Taken by the Earl of Cumberland.

non, and an immenſe booty in plate. In the year 1615, the Dutch ſent a ſtrong fleet hither, but with no great ſucceſs; for they only took and plundered the city, not being able to reduce the caſtle, which with the other forts are now in a better condition than ever, as the Spaniards of late have taken ſeveral ſteps towards the better ſettlement of this iſland.—The city of Porto-Rico is ſituated in 18 deg. 20 min. north, and 65 deg. 35 min. weſt longitude.

The principal commodities in which the traders of Porto-Rico deal, are, ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton-thread, caſſia, maſtic, *&c.* They have alſo great quantities of ſalt, and make a conſiderable profit of the ſale of their oranges and lemons, as fruit, and in ſweetmeats. They have a great many good veſſels, in which they trade to various parts of America. Beſides Porto-Rico, there are ſeveral conſiderable towns, ſuch as Arezibo, Guadiamila, St Germain, *&c.* The genius of the people, and the convenient ſituation of this iſland, would render it a moſt flouriſhing colony, if ſome great inconveniencies did not keep the people under. Theſe are principally three: great droughts, which are but too frequent, and which bring the inhabitants often to the point of ſtarving: hurricanes likewiſe are very frequent, which do incredible miſchief, both at ſea and on land: and laſtly, the deſcents of privateers, which have been ſo frequent and ſo fatal, that all the ſea-ports have been ruined over and over; and perhaps this is one reaſon

Trading commodities.

why the guarda coſtas fitted out from this place, are ſo remarkably cruel.

It is not eaſy to fix the number of people upon this iſland; but ſome who pretend to be well acquainted therewith, aſſure us that they do not exceed 10,000.

The other places of note in this and the neighbouring ſmall iſlands, are,

1. Port-del-Aguada on the north-weſt part of the iſland, where the galleons and flota uſually ſtop, to take in freſh proviſions and water when they come from Spain.

Port-del-Aguada.

2. Bomba d' Inferno, or, as the French call it, Coffremort, is a ſmall iſland, about three leagues in length, on the ſouth ſide of Porto-Rico iſland, but is remarkable only for the fiſhing of tortoiſes.

3. Crabs iſland on the ſouth corner of the great one, (ſo called by the bucaneers, on account of the great number of theſe creatures found there), is pretty large, and abundantly fertile, planted with oranges, citrons, and other fruits. The Engliſh ſettled here in the year 1718; but it is at preſent deſtitute of inhabitants, for the Spaniards not chuſing ſuch neighbours, ſurpriſed and took the place in the year 1720, and carried away the colony to Porto-Rico, and St Domingo.

Crabs iſland.

4. To the eaſt of Porto-Rico, lie a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, about twelve or more in number, called the *Virgins*. Though the

The Virgin iſles.

the paſſage through them is reckoned difficult and dangerous, yet Sir Francis Drake paſſed ſafely through them, in his way to St Domingo. Theſe too belong to Spain, but are of little value, being moſtly barren, ſandy, cragged, and uninhabited.

Laſtly, the iſland of Mona, which lies between Porto-Rico and Hiſpaniola, is but ſmall; however, it is ſaid to be very fruitful and well peopled. It is well watered, and produces excellent fruits in great abundance, and has a governor in it appointed by the King of Spain.

Thus having finiſhed our deſcription of the Spaniſh inſulan colonies in the Weſt Indies, we ſhall next proceed to deſcribe their ſettlements on the continent of North America, which will be the ſubject of the ſecond part.

PART

PART II.

The Spaniſh ſettlements on the continent of North America.

CHAP. I.

Of Florida. A deſcription of the town and fort of St Auguſtine; the advantages that would attend the taking of it, if annexed to the Britiſh dominions, &c.

THE general name of *Florida* was given by the Spaniards to all that part of North America lying to the north of the gulf of Mexico, and bordering on the Atlantic ocean to the eaſt. But at preſent it has different names; for within theſe limits are compriſed our colonies of Georgia and Carolina, and that immenſe country to the weſt of theſe, called by the French *Louiſiana*, into which they have lately intruded themſelves, though at the ſame time they had not the leaſt right or title to it.

At preſent the Spaniſh province of Florida is but narrow and inconſiderable, being little more than that peninſula, ſituated between Georgia and Cape Florida; lying between the latitudes of 25 and 30 deg. north, and between 81 and 85 deg. weſt longitude, having the gulf of Mexico on the weſt, and the Atlantic ocean on the

the eaſt, and the ſtreights of Bahama on the ſouth. Its length from north to ſouth is 300 miles, and about 100 where broadeſt.

This country is bleſſed with a pure air, and a prolific ſoil, equal to any of our North-American colonies in fertili- Climate and ſoil. ty and pleaſantneſs, producing all ſorts of excellent timber, dying-woods, ſhrubs, herbs, together with all ſorts of grain, and excellent grapes. Here may be raiſed great quantities of wine and ſilk, as the ſoil and climate are admirably well adapted for the production of theſe valuable commodities; ſo that nothing is wanting to render this province as profitable as it is pleaſant, but induſtrious inhabitants to cultivate its luxuriant ſoil. The many rivers with which it is watered, not only abound in fiſh, but render it inferior to no country in the world; the meadows are clothed with excellent graſs, and theſe are paſtured with numerous herds of cattle; the woods ſwarm with deer, goats, and other animals. Here are incredible numbers of turkies, and every other ſort of the winged ſpecies common in America. Although the climate be naturally warm, being but a few degrees to the north of the tropic, yet the great heat is much mitigated by the ſea-breezes, and towards the Apalachian mountains the air is generally cool and refreſhing.

The natives of this country are of an olive colour, robuſt, agile, and extremely well proportioned; they go naked, both men and women, except only a deer-ſkin round their middle; but

but to preſerve themſelves from the injuries of the weather they are painted with certain juices, which leave indelible marks. The weapons they uſe are bows and arrows, which they manage with great dexterity. As to religion, they are bigotted idolaters, worſhipping the ſun and moon as ſupreme deities, and bearing an irreconcileable hatred to all Chriſtians.

The Spaniards, as they have always lived in a ſtate of war with theſe Indians, ſo they have conſtantly repreſented them in the blackeſt colours; though ſuch of our countrymen as have had any thing to do with them, affirm they are not ſo bad, except as to their ſubtilty, and propenſity to fraud, of which they have more than any other natives of America.

St Auguſtine. The only towns or places of ſtrength which the Spaniards are poſſeſſed of in Florida, are St Auguſtine and St Mattheo. As to the former, it is ſeated in north latitude, 29 deg. 48 min. about eighty leagues from the mouth of the gulf of Florida, or channel of Bahama, thirty ſouth of the river Alatamacha, and forty-ſeven from the town of Savannah in Georgia. It is built along the ſhore at the bottom of a hill ſhaded with trees, in the form of an oblong ſquare, and is divided into four ſtreets, cutting each other at right angles.

Fortifications. About a mile north from the town ſtands the caſtle, called *St John's fort*, built of ſoft ſtone, with four baſtions; it has a curtain of ſixty yards long, a parapet of nine feet thick, and a rampart twenty feet high.

The

The fort is mounted with fifty pieces of cannon, ſixteen of which are braſs, and ſome of them twenty-four pounders. The harbour is formed by an iſland, and a long point of land, divided from the continent by a river. The iſland, which is called *Euſtatia*, is long and narrow; the northern part of it is due eaſt from the caſtle, and extends about ten miles ſouth along the coaſt, leaving a channel betwixt it and the main land, which at the ſouthern extremity of the iſland is not a mile over, but not ſo much at the northern. It is neceſſary to obſerve, that the ſea on this coaſt is ſo ſhallow that no ſhips of great force can come within three leagues either of the town or caſtle.

In the year 1586, this place was taken by Sir Francis Drake, when the Spaniards fled, and left him fourteen braſs cannon, beſides a cheſt of 2000 pounds, and other booty. In 1665 it was again taken and plundered by Capt. Davis at the head of the bucaneers. Taken by Sir Fran. Drake.

In the year 1702, the people of Carolina formed a deſign of conquering what the Spaniards ſtill hold in Florida, and actually undertook it under the command of Col. Moor their governor. He ruined the villages and farms in the open country, and beſieged the town of St Auguſtine for three months; but on the approach of ſome Spaniſh veſſels to its relief, he raiſed the ſiege with precipitation, and marched back to Charleſtown, 300 miles, by land. The

The Engliſh attack it under Col. Moor, but diſappointed.

laſt ſiege of this place was by Gen. Oglethorpe in 1740, when he marched to it with a conſiderable body of Engliſh forces, and a much larger of Indians, and took ſome advanced poſts; but the Spaniſh governor, it ſeems, was a man of great experience, and having early intelligence of the viſit intended him, had increaſed his forces to near a thouſand men. The Engliſh ſeemed to have taken poſſeſſion of too many places, ſome of which were probably abandoned to them with that view. This afforded the Spaniſh officer an opportunity of cutting off about 130 men, who were poſted in the negro fort under the command of Col. Palmer. This diſaſter, together with the apparent impoſſibility of doing any great execution by the batteries which had been raiſed on the iſland of Euſtatia, being at too great a diſtance, occaſioned the raiſing of the ſiege towards the latter end of June, and thereby put an end to the high expectations which had been raiſed from this undertaking, which, if it had ſucceeded, muſt have been attended with very great advantages to the Britiſh nation.

St Mattheo.

The only place in this peninſula of any conſequence to the Spaniards, next to St Auguſtine, is St Mattheo, about fifteen leagues to the north. This is the frontier-town of Florida, next to Georgia. It was beſieged by the Engliſh when we were laſt at war with the Spaniards, but with little advantage.

Both theſe towns, as well as Georgia, are within

within the limits of South Carolina, though unjuſtly detained from us by the Spaniards; for by the charter granted by King Charles II. in 1666, the ſouthern limits of Carolina were fixed at north latitude 29. The Spaniards indeed ſay, that this grant was an invaſion upon their right; but if the firſt diſcovery gives a title, which is the general pretenſion of the Spaniards to their American dominions, we ſhall find it belongs to us, and we had an undoubted title to all that part of Florida which borders on the gulf of Mexico ever ſince the reign of Henry VII. by whoſe commiſſion (as was formerly obſerved) Cabot diſcovered all this coaſt fronting the Atlantic ocean, from north latitude 28. to north latitude 50. twenty years before it had been viſited by any other European. At the ſame time it muſt be acknowledged, that Juan Pontio-de-Leon made afterwards a fuller diſcovery of it in the year 1512, and took poſſeſſion of the country for the King of Spain; however, this by no means deſtroys our prior title to it.

St Auguſtine in time of war is a neſt of privateers, which, if not deſtroyed, will greatly diſtreſs our North-American and Jamaica trade. Although our attempt upon it in the year 1740, with an irregular body of militia, failed, yet it would ſoon have fallen by a regular force well conducted; for the town is ſmall, and the fort not able to reſiſt the uſual force employed in a ſiege.

If this place was taken, all Florida would fall with it, which would be of great ſervice to

our trade, not only by depriving the Spaniards of a port, from whence they might annoy us on this ſide, but, on the contrary, enable us to diſtreſs them, by cruiſing on their homeward-bound ſhips coming from the gulf of Florida, and the ſtreights of Bahama. And if we were to add to it the conqueſt of Louiſiana, (which every one reckons to be in our power), and the war ending proſperouſly, we might then make the Miſſiſippi our weſtern boundary, and the gulfs of Florida and Mexico our ſouthern. This would effectually ſettle our confines in North America, and put a final period to future diſputes both with France and Spain in this reſpect; this would alſo entirely ſubject the Indians to us, and put a perpetual ſtop to the horrid ravages they formerly committed upon our planters, through the inſtigation of the French and Spaniards.

The importance of St Auguſtine.

CHAP. II.

New Mexico. Its extent, climate, ſoil, and products.

THis extenſive country, which the Spaniards ſometimes call the kingdom, and ſometimes the province of New Mexico, was ſo called, as being later diſcovered than Old Mexico, or New Spain. It is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louiſiana on the eaſt, by ſome of the provinces of New Spain,

Spain, and the gulf of Mexico, on the ſouth; on the weſt by the Vermilion ſea, and the Rio Colorado, which ſeparates it from California. The extent of this country is very uncertain; even the Spaniſh writers ſeem to diſagree in this point. Some place it between the parallels of 27 and 50 deg. north latitude, and between 100 and 115 of weſt longitude. However, this may be affirmed, that what has been diſcovered extends upwards of 1000 miles in a northern direction from New Biſcay in New Spain; and the breadth from California to the Miſſiſippi is little inferior.

Some geographers divide it into fifteen, many of the Spaniſh writers into eighteen provinces, of which they give us only the names; but the lateſt maps ſeem to divide it only into five.

This delightful country lies for the moſt part within the temperate zone, and has a moſt pleaſant climate, every way agreeable to European conſtitutions.

As to the ſoil, it is wonderfully good, abounding with fruit and timber trees, and beautifully interſperſed with riſing grounds, and plains, with rivers and purling ſtreams. All ſorts of wild and tame cattle, eſpecially cows, are found here in great abundance, with plenty of fowls and fiſh. In a word, this is as pleaſant, plentiful, and rich a country as in America, or in any other part of the world; for, beſides the many valuable commodities the ſoil is capable of producing, it contains alſo in its

Soil and product.

bowels

bowels many rich mines of ſilver, and ſome of gold, which are worked more and more every day; and it affords precious ſtones of ſeveral kinds; but it labours under one great inconvenience, namely, of having no direct intercourſe with Europe. This country is but little known to Europeans, and the Spaniſh ſettlements in it are ſaid to be weak; however, they are every day increaſing in proportion, as they diſcover mines which are ſaid not to be inferior to any that have been diſcovered in America.

Rivers.

Although there are but few rivers of note in this extenſive tract of country, yet it is extremely well watered, with innumerable ſmall rivers and beautiful ſtreams: the only remarkable ones here are, Rio Salada, and Rio del Norte, or the north river, which runs the whole length of the country, and then bending eaſt, paſſes through the province of New Leon, where it falls into the Mexican gulf. There are alſo ſeveral rivers of leſs note, which run into the ſea of Mexico; and there are ſeveral bays and creeks on that coaſt, which might eaſily be converted into harbours.

The greateſt part of this country is ſtill in the hands of the original inhabitants, who, though they are repreſented as an eaſy, peaceable, and hoſpitable people, yet were not only more numerous, but better provided for their defence than any other people of the new world, which the Spaniards had to encounter with. The Indians there were well clothed, cultivated their lands, had large flocks of cattle, tolerable huts

in

in their villages, and ſtately ſtone houſes in their towns, when the Spaniards came among them, which was in the year 1539. However, they were groſs idolaters, worſhipping the ſun and moon; as to government, they had petty princes or caciques, whom they elected for their wiſdom and valour. Theſe Indians ſhewed a greater readineſs to embrace the Chriſtian religion than any other of the American nations, but did not diſcover any willingneſs to part with their liberty, which in a great meaſure they ſtill retain. Spaniſh writers make mention of a great variety of nations in this country; but the principal are the Apaches, who are a very brave and warlike people. About the latter end of the laſt century, theſe conceiving themſelves aggrieved by the Spaniſh governor, made a general inſurrection, and did a great deal of miſchief, but were at laſt overpowered, and ſtronger garriſons have been kept there ſince to keep them in awe.

The capital of all this country, is the city of Santa Fe, ſeated on the Rio del Norte, in north latitude 36. It is ſaid to be a well-built rich city; but ſtanding at the diſtance of 130 leagues from the ſea, it cannot be expected, that we ſhould have a good account of it. Beſides this, the Spaniards have many conſiderable towns here; but as we know very little about them, it would be unneceſſary for us to mention them. The whole is under one governor, who reſides at Santa Fe, and ought always to have a ſtanding army of 600 horſe,

The city of Santa Fe.

horſe, for which he receives conſtant pay from the crown. The Spaniards export their plate, precious ſtones, and the other commodities of this country by land to Mexico, on horſes and mules, and affect a great deal of caution whenever they write of this country; whether it be that they are apprehenſive of the natives, or afraid that ſtrangers ſhould attempt any thing by making deſcents on the ſide next to California, is uncertain. The Spaniards are naturally cautious, and ſometimes exceed in that reſpect: but in this caſe they are certainly in the right; for Dampier frequently mentions the poſſibility of penetrating to the gold and ſilver mines, by making deſcents on the ſhore oppoſite to California. On the other ſide, if the French be allowed to reſide in Louiſiana, the Spaniards will run no ſmall hazard from their neighbourhood. This muſt readily appear to any perſon, who conſiders, with what addreſs they have fixed themſelves in the iſland of Hiſpaniola.

The governor of New Mexico only enjoys his poſt for five years, and then has a ſucceſſor ſent him; which is probably the reaſon that he is ſo much devoted to his own intereſt, and ſo careleſs of that of the public.

In paſſing we may obſerve, that when King Charles I. made a grant of that part of Florida to the weſt of Carolina, great part of New Mexico as well as Louiſiana was included in it. For the extent of this grant ſpecified in the charter, was all the continent to the weſt of Carolina, from north latitude 29. to north latitude

titude 36. extending in longitude from ſaid place to the great South ſea.

CHAP. III.

The peninſula of California deſcribed.—The Britiſh claim to it.

THis is the moſt northern part of the new world diſcovered, and in any degree poſſeſſed by the Spaniards. The ſouthern parts of this peninſula were known to that nation ſoon after the diſcovery of Mexico; but it remained, for the ſpace of 120 years after that, a matter of diſpute, whether it was an iſland, or a peninſula. It uſed to be laid down in the beſt maps as an iſland, with a pretty wide ſea betwixt it and the continent of New Mexico: but in the lateſt maps it is laid down as a peninſula, which it really is, though it did not appear to be: certainty, till it was diſcovered to be ſuch, by Father Caino a German Jeſuit, who landed in California, and paſſed into New Mexico, without croſſing any other water, than Rio Azul, or Blue river, about north latitude 35. So that this matter is now out of diſpute, after having long exerciſed the conjectures of the learned about it.

According to the beſt maps we have, California extends from 23 to 45 deg. of north latitude; that is, from the ſtreight diſcovered by Martin Aquilar, to Cape St Lucas; ſo that it is about 800 miles from ſouth to north: its

breadth is very unequal, being near 200 miles towards the northern parts, but tapers away towards the ſouthern extremity, where it is hardly fifty miles over. It is bounded on the north, by an unknown continent; on the eaſt by New Mexico, and the gulf of California, commonly called the *Vermilion ſea*; and on the weſt and ſouth by the Pacific ocean. Though it lies for the moſt part within the temperate zone, yet there are great heats on the coaſt in the ſummer-time, but the inland parts are very temperate; and though the winter is pretty cold, yet it is judged to be a healthy and an agreeable country. As to the ſoil, the mountains are clothed with woods, and the plains plentifully watered, abounding with fruit-trees, and producing, where planted, all the kinds of grain which grow in Europe. Here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; here are all ſorts of fowls and birds common either in Europe or the Weſt Indies, with amazing quantities of ſea and river fiſh; and in a word, a more plentiful country cannot be wiſhed for. That there are mines here, is very probable, though not certain; but it is well known, that here is one of the fineſt pearl-fiſheries in the whole world. This country is watered with many ſmall rivers, beſides two pretty conſiderable, *viz.* Rio Colorado, and Rio du Carmel. On both ſides of the peninſula are many fine ports, with innumerable bays, creeks, and roads. The natives of this country have been very differently characteriſed by our writers, and

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alſo by the Spaniards; but it is ſafeſt to rely on what Father Caino tells us concerning them, becauſe he converſed longer with them, and more familiarly than any other perſon who has left us memoirs. He informs us, that theſe people, who are tolerably well made, and very ingenious, live without houſes, contenting themſelves with the ſhade afforded them by trees in the ſummer, and dwelling in caves in the winter. They are not altogether void of religion, ſince they have been obſerved to kneel and pray on the firſt appearance of the new moon; and to ſhew a great docility in receiving the principles of the Chriſtian religion, which however no great pains has been taken to propagate amongſt them. As to government, they are abſolutely in a ſtate of nature, every man is both a ſovereign and a legiſlator in his own family; which is attended with great inconveniencies, there being continual feuds amongſt them, which frequently end in broils and bloodſhed. The men go for the moſt part naked, except a fillet of fine cloth about their temples, and bracelets of pearl which are very beautifully wrought. The women are better clothed; for, beſides an ornament upon their heads, they wear generally a mantle of ſkins over their ſhoulders, a piece of cloth girt round their bodies, and chains of pearls on their necks and arms. Such as live on the eaſtern ſide, on the ſhore of the Vermilion ſea, are enemies to the Spaniards, who very probably have given them cauſe. But in other parts of the country, they

ſeem extremely well diſpoſed to entertain any ſtrangers, and might, without much difficulty, be converted and civilized: but as they are very numerous, and their country of great extent, one may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that the Spaniards have declined ſending miſſionaries, through fear that the people, when civilized, might either prove dangerous neighbours, or by cultivating their lands, invite ſtrangers to ſettle amongſt them.

There are two things very obſervable in this country, namely, that after the rainy ſeaſon is over, a great quantity of dew falls in the mornings, in the months of April, May, and June, which not only renders the ground exceeding prolific, but ſettling upon roſe-leaves, candies, and hardens like manna, is ſweet as ſugar, though not ſo white, and pleaſant to the eye.

2. In the heart of the country are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as cryſtal, which (conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh of all ſorts that are found here) might prove of great advantage to any civilized people, who were poſſeſſed of the country. But the natives do not ſeem to make uſe of this ſalt for curing their fiſh, which they generally eat raw, as they do alſo fleſh and roots.

The Spaniards for a long tract of time wholly neglected this valuable peninſula, and it is but of late they had any ſettlements there. At preſent they have only a village in its ſouthern extremity near Cape St Lucas. The Manila ſhips

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ſometimes touch here in their way to Acapulco; and this, no doubt, in proceſs of time, will become a very conſiderable place, by their trading with the Indians for pearl.

There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands on the coaſts of California, both in the Pacific ocean, and in the Vermilion ſea; but thoſe which are beſt known, are thoſe three lying off Cape St Lucas, towards the Mexican coaſt, called *Las tres Marias*, the three Marys; they are but ſmall, but have good wood and water, abundance of game, and ſalt pits as in California. Theſe iſlands were much frequented by the Engliſh and French pirates, when cruiſing in the South ſeas, and ſometimes they wintered there.

Our famous admiral and navigator Sir Francis Drake landed in California, and took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1578, for his miſtreſs Queen Eliſabeth, by the name of New Albion; and he not only took poſſeſſion, but obtained the beſt right in the world to the poſſeſſion, the principal king of the country having formally inveſted him with the ſovereignty, and preſented him with his own crown of beautiful feathers. However, we do not find, that ever the Britiſh nation had any thought of aſſerting that right ſince his time.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

The extent and ſituation, climate and ſoil, &c. of Old Mexico or New Spain, its diviſion into three audiences; with a deſcription of the diſtrict of Guadalajara.

THis vaſt kingdom, which lies between the parallels of 7 deg. 30 min. and 30 deg. 30 min. north latitude, is bounded on the north-weſt by New Mexico, on the north-eaſt by the gulf of Mexico, on the ſouth-eaſt by the iſthmus of Darien, and on the ſouth-weſt by the great South ſea. It is upwards of 2000 miles from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; but its breadth is very unequal, occaſioned by its many indentures by ſeveral bays; the broadeſt part is on the frontiers of New Mexico, where it extends from the gulf of California on the weſt, to the borders of Louiſiana on the eaſt, about 620 miles. It gradually grows narrower, till we come to the great bay of Campeachy, where it forms a kind of iſthmus: then it ſpreads from the South ſea to Cape Cotoche in the province of Ycatan near 600 miles. It is again contracted by the gulf of Honduras; and eaſt from Nicaragua it forms another iſthmus, till it reaches the frontiers of Darien, which ſeparates it from South America.

This was the firſt country the Spaniards conquered and ſettled on the continent of America, and it ſtill continues their principal ſettlement,

ment, whether we conſider its number of inhabitants, its natural wealth, or extended traffic.

Notwithſtanding the great extent, and the innumerable inhabitants of this large empire, yet it is amazing to conſider how ſoon it was conquered by a handful of Spaniards. Hernando Cortes, a native of Old Spain, a man of great bravery and conduct, being ſent by the governor of Cuba with a ſmall fleet, and a few troops, in order to make diſcoveries on the coaſt of the continent, arrived at La Vera Cruz, and there having received information of the vaſt wealth of the King of Mexico, the news of it ſpeedily determined him to pay the Mexican monarch a viſit. Accordingly Cortes ſet out on his journey the 16th of Auguſt 1520, only with five hundred foot, fifteen horſe, and a thouſand Indians to carry their baggage. With this little army, and a ſmall reinforcement he afterwards received from Cuba, Cortes ſoon ſubdued the whole Mexican empire, which ever ſince has been poſſeſſed and governed by the Spaniards.

As this extenſive region lies for the moſt part within the torrid zone, it is extremely hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons; it is likewiſe very unwholeſome; neither is the coaſt pleaſant in any reſpect, being incumbered for the moſt part with impenetrable foreſts of mangrove trees, which extend into the water for a conſiderable way. But the inland country aſſumes a more agreeable aſpect, and

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the air is of a better temperament. Here the tropical fruits grow in great abundance and perfection. Here the land is generally fruitful, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, if the number or induſtry of the inhabitants were in any meaſure proportioned to the luxuriancy of the ſoil. The land on the weſtern ſide is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, is much better in quality, and full of plantations.

It is probable that the Spaniards, for wiſe ends, leave the eaſtern coaſts of this country in its preſent ſtate of rudeneſs and deſolation, judging that a deſert and unwholeſome frontier is a better defence againſt a foreign enemy than fortifications and armies, to be maintained at a vaſt expenſe. In general, few countries under the ſame aſpect of the heavens enjoy more of the benefits of nature, and the neceſſaries of life; but, like all the tropical countries, it is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cacao-nuts, are produced here in ſurpriſing plenty. The number of their horned cattle is incredible; ſome private perſons are ſaid to have upwards of 40,000 head; many run wild in the woods, and a very conſiderable trade is driven in their hides and tallow. Hogs are equally numerous, and their lard is much in requeſt all over the country, where it is uſed inſtead of butter. Although Mexico produces prodigious herds of ſheep, yet their wool is but a very inconſiderable article in their trade; nor is it probable that it is of a

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good kind, as it is ſcarcely ever found uſeful between the tropics.

This kingdom is divided into three diſtricts or governments, called *audiences*, that is, ſovereign courts, which, though under the inſpection of him who is appointed viceroy of Mexico by the King of Spain, decide all matters whatſoever, civil or criminal; and this is ſo ordered for the conveniency of the people, who otherwiſe would be obliged upon all ſuits to repair to the city of Mexico from the moſt diſtant parts; whereas by this means they have ſovereign courts to determine all controverſies, and direct all affairs relating to the government within reaſonable diſtances.

The names of theſe three audiences are Guadalajara, Mexico, and Guatimala; each audience is ſubdivided into ſeveral counties or provinces.

We ſhall briefly treat of theſe three in order as they lie, from north to ſouth, beginning with that of Guadalajara, which is alſo called the kingdom of New Galicia.

The audience of Guadalajara.

This audience, which extends from north latitude 20. to north latitude 30. is bounded on the north by New Mexico, on the weſt by the Pacific ocean, and the gulf of California; on the ſouth and eaſt it has Panuco, and ſeveral provinces of Mexico. Its extenſion along the ſea-coaſt from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt is about 200 leagues, but its interior parts are very unequal, yet in ſome places 500 miles wide.

The climate of this diſtrict differs very much, being partly within the torrid and partly within the temperate zone; however, it is reckoned wholeſome, and is far more temperate than any other part of New Spain. The ground is generally mountainous and woody, but at the ſame time abundantly fruitful where duly cultivated, producing Indian and European grain, alſo many valuable drugs, with very rich mines of ſilver, together with a very good pearl-fiſhery on the coaſt.

This audience is divided into ſeven large pro-

The province of Cinaloa.

vinces. The firſt of theſe on the north-weſt is Cinaloa, which lies next to the kingdom of New Mexico, along the ſhore of the Californian ſea. It is about 300 miles from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, but does not exceed 120 where broadeſt. Here the air is ſerene and pleaſant; and beſides fine paſtures abounding with cattle, the ſoil bears all ſorts of fruits and grain. The capital of this province is the city of St John, at a ſmall diſtance from the coaſt, on a ſmall river that runs into the gulf of California. This city is about 300 leagues north-weſt from the capital of New Spain: the Spaniards have no other towns of note here, but ſome forts of the Indians, which they have repaired to keep them in ſubjection.

2. To the eaſt of the laſt-mentioned pro-

New Biſcay.

vince lies that of New Biſcay, which has no communication with the ſea. However, the inhabitants of it are very rich,

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not only in corn, cattle, and other commodities, but alſo in ſilver. There are very rich mines in the neighbourhood of St John of Biſcay, its capital; beſides which there are two other conſiderable towns, called St Barbara and Ende.

3. To the ſouthward of New Biſcay lies that of Zacatecas, ſo called from its an- Zacatecas.
cient inhabitants. This is alſo an inland province, but is well peopled, and abounds with large boroughs: it is about 100 leagues in length, and forty-five in breadth. The weſtern parts of it are barren as to ſoil, but rich in mines; however, the eaſtern parts are very fertile in fruits and corn.

The capital of the ſame name lies almoſt under the tropic, about forty leagues north from Guadalajara, and eighty from Mexico. A little to the north of Zacatecas ſtands the town of Nombre-de-dios, which is both large and populous. Durango, about ten leagues to the north-weſt of Nombre-de-dios, is a biſhop's ſee, ſeated at the conflux of ſeveral rivers, which makes it a very convenient ſituation for trade.

4. The next maritime province to the ſouth of Cinaloa is Culiacan, about ſixty Culiacan.
leagues in length, and fifty in breadth; it abounds with all kinds of delicious fruits, and is watered with many fine rivers, whoſe banks are extremely fertile, and the province in general is cloſely inhabited.

5. The province of Chiametlan lies under the tropic, one half of it being in Chiametlan.

the torrid zone, and the other half in the temperate. On the weſt it is waſhed by the Pacific ocean, and is about thirty-ſeven leagues in length, and as much in breadth. This province is bleſſed with a rich ſoil; beſides corn and fruits, it yields great quantities of honey, wax, and ſilver. The chief town is St Sebaſtian, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, the inhabitants of which carry on a conſiderable trade.

Xaliſco.

6. The moſt ſouthern province on the coaſt is that of Xaliſco, which is waſhed by the South ſea on the ſouth and weſt, and is about fifty leagues either way. Though Xaliſco, an ancient city, is the capital, yet that which is the moſt conſiderable in the province is Compoſtella, near the South ſea, about thirty leagues to the north of the former. This is a very flouriſhing town, and has many rich mines in its neighbourhood, particularly at St Pecaque, where the Spaniards keep great numbers of ſlaves to work them. The town of St Pecaque was plundered by the bucaneers in 1656, when they carried off a rich booty.

Guadalajara Proper.

7. Guadalajara Proper, which is the principal province, and gives name to the whole audience, is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by the province of Mechoacan, on the north by that of Xaliſco, and a corner of it is waſhed by the South ſea on the weſt. This province is very temperate, exceeding fruitful, producing not only good timber, but European and Indian wheat, with plenty of fruits; beſides,

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vaſt treaſures of ſilver are taken out of the mines.

Its capital of the ſame name, (which is the head of the whole audience, the ſeat of the royal courts of juſtice, and a biſhop's ſee of conſiderable revenue), is a large, populous, and elegant city, ſtanding very pleaſantly on the banks of the river Baraja, proceeding from the lake of Mechoacan, from whence it goes with a rapid ſtream to the north-weſt. The lake of Chapala, which is ſaid to be forty leagues in compaſs, lies on the ſouth ſide of this city.

There is another province ſtill to be taken notice of, called *New Leon*, which our beſt maps place betwixt New Biſcay and the gulf of Mexico; but all the account we find of it is in Martiniere. He calls it a kingdom, and bounds it on the north by the Rio-del-Norte, which falls into the gulf above mentioned; on the ſouth by the province of Panuco, and on the weſt by New Biſcay; but ſays, it has no towns, nor any conſiderable ſettlement, yet has many mountains, in which are many rich mines. New Leon.

It muſt be owned, that this is but a very ſhort and dry deſcription of ſo large and populous a country; yet this may be the more eaſily excuſed, when it is conſidered, that very few of our writers ſay any thing of it at all, and even the Spaniſh writers treat it very ſuperficially, becauſe, as they report, it is a part of their dominions which has but very little trade, though

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we have reaſon to believe that their ſilence proceeds from wiſer motives.

The ground of theſe precautions is not only the ſilver mines which have been already mentioned, but alſo ſome of gold, lately found in the neighbourhood of Compoſtella, of very great value, the ore of which they tranſport by mules to Mexico, not chuſing to expoſe ſo valuable a commerce to be intercepted by foreigners, which might often happen, if they ventured to ſend it in ſmall veſſels by ſea.

The Spaniards are not very numerous throughout this whole audience, except in the two great cities of Guadalajara and Compoſtella. The Meſtizoes, however, make a conſiderable figure in point of number and eſtate; but the bulk of the people are the natives, who are, generally ſpeaking, well treated here, becauſe they are not of a temper to be uſed otherwiſe; and the effects are anſwerable to ſo good a cauſe, ſince they are viſibly braver and politer than any of their countrymen, and are ſaid to be well affected to the Spaniards, chiefly through the inſtigation of their prieſts, for whom they have a great eſteem. Not only the natives, but the Spaniards live here to great ages; and as they drain the mariſhes, and thin the woods, it is obſerved the climate grows daily better, inſomuch that many remove hither from other parts of the Mexican empire.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

Of the audience of Mexico. A deſcription of its ſeveral provinces and principal towns, &c.

THis audience, which is the nobleſt part of the Spaniſh dominions in New Spain, has the South ſea on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; on the ſouth-eaſt ſide it joins the provinces of Chiapa and Soconuſco in the government of Guatimala. It lies for the moſt part under the torrid zone, between 17 and 23 deg. of north latitude, and its greateſt length from north to ſouth is 200 leagues. This country is rich in all ſorts of deſirable commodities, gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones not excepted. But in order to have a juſt notion of it, it will be neceſſary to conſider it a little more particularly, and at the ſame time we ſhall do it with all poſſible brevity.

This audience is alſo divided into ſeven provinces, *viz.* 1. Panuco. 2. Flaſcala. 3. Mechoacan. 4. Mexico Proper. 5. Guaxaca. 6. Tabaſco. 7. Ycatan.

1. Panuco is ſituated between the province of New Leon and Flaſcala. This province is both extenſive and fine-ly ſituated; it was one of the firſt diſcoveries of the famous Cortes, who took a great deal of pains to conquer and plant it, though the country be rather fruitful and pleaſant than rich. Its inhabitants made a ſtout reſiſtance, and were not

The province of Panuco.

not eaſily ſubdued; however, by the building of ſeveral cities and forts, they have been ſince thoroughly ſubjected, which is perhaps one reaſon why ſo many of them retired into Florida, rather than remain ſlaves in their native country. On this account we find that this province is but thinly inhabited, and little notice taken of it by ſeveral authors, notwithſtanding its having an extenſive ſea-coaſt along the Mexican gulf, with ſeveral roads and creeks, though no great ports.

Its capital hath the ſame name with the province, as alſo hath the river upon which it ſtands, and is navigable for large ſhips a conſiderable diſtance above the city; but the harbour has ſo large a bar before it, that no ſhips of burden can enter it, which has proved of bad conſequence to the commerce of the place.

The city of Panuco, which is a biſhop's ſee, lies in north latitude 23 deg. 5 min. at the diſtance of about twenty leagues from the ſea, containing near 500 families; the houſes are neat and well built of ſtone, and thatched with palmetto leaves.

2. Tlaſcala is bounded on the north by part of the laſt-mentioned province, on the eaſt by the gulf of Mexico, on the ſouth-weſt by the Pacific ocean, and on the weſt by Mexico Proper. So that it has the advantage of lying both on the north and ſouth ſeas; being above 100 leagues from the one to the other, and about eighty where broadeſt, which is along the Mexican gulf. As it is per-

Tlaſcala.

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haps the beſt ſeated, ſo it is, beyond queſtion, the moſt populous country in all America; which is owing to many cauſes. In the firſt place we may obſerve, that the Tlaſcalans never were conquered; but as they were originally the allies of Cortes, ſo, by his recommendation, they have ever ſince been conſidered in that light by the Spaniards, which is perhaps the only true point of policy they have purſued. By this means the villages and towns ſwarm with Indians, who are quite different people from their neighbours: for whereas the latter are grown ſenſeleſs and ſtupid through the long continuance of ſlavery and oppreſſion, theſe have all the fire and ſpirit that is natural to a free people; they ſpeak the Spaniſh tongue, and ſcarce any other, being perfectly reconciled to the Spaniſh cuſtoms, and grateful for the countenance and reſpect ſhewed them. It is really ſurpriſing that the Spaniards, having ſuch an inſtance before their eyes, do not treat the Indians in general better, which would, no doubt, be attended with equal advantages.

This province was anciently a monarchy, till civil wars ariſing among the inhabitants, they formed themſelves into an ariſtocracy of many princes, in order to get ride of one. They divided their towns into different diſtricts, each of which nominated one of their chiefs to reſide in the court of Tlaſcala, where they formed a ſenate, whoſe reſolutions were a law to the whole. Under this form of government, they maintained themſelves a long time againſt the

kings of Mexico, and continued in it, till their reception of the Spaniards among them.

There are many large and rich towns in this province; the chief of which are,

1. Tlaſcala, anciently the capital of the pro-

The town of Tlaſcala.

vince, now no more than an Indian town, which ſtands very pleaſantly on the banks of a river running into the South ſea; but is moſtly inhabited by Indians, who are generally very rich, being free from all taxes and duties. Gage ſays, that, in his time, there were no leſs than twenty towns and villages ſubject to this city. Heylin ſays, that when the Spaniards firſt arrived here, it contained 150,000 families; and Acoſta, that it had a market-place big enough to hold 30,000 buyers and ſellers. But Gemelli, who was there in the year 1698, ſays, it was then become an ordinary village, with a pariſh-church, in which is hung the picture of the ſhip that brought Cortes to Vera Cruz.

2. The preſent capital of the province, and

Puebla de los Angelos.

much the fineſt place in it, is Puebla de los Angelos, *i. e.* the city of Angels. It even vies for beauty and magnificence with the city of Mexico; and the wealth of the place, or rather of the clergy, may be gueſſed at from the yearly revenue of the cathedral, which amounts to 300,000 pieces of eight. It ſtands in a delightful plain, fifteen leagues ſouth from Tlaſcala, on the road from Vera Cruz to Mexico, 130 miles from the former, and 60 from the latter. The buildings

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are for the moſt part of ſtone; the ſtreets, which are regular, croſs each other, eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth, meeting in the centre, where they form a great ſquare, which ſome have thought to be finer than that of Mexico. It is adorned on three ſides with uniform porticoes, where are rich ſhops of all ſorts of commodities, and cheſts full of pieces of eight, piled one upon another to the very ceilings. On the other ſide is a ſtately cathedral, which has a moſt beautiful front, and two high towers built all of ſtone. The houſes are computed at about ſixteen or ſeventeen hundred, and the families about 2000. Here vaſt numbers of merchants reſide, who repair to La Vera Cruz, when the flota arrives, and then return after the fair is over, with the European goods they purchaſe.

3. The city of La Vera Cruz, which is the great port of New Spain on the north ſea, ſtands alſo in this province, and very well deſerves a particular deſcription, which ſhall be given, when we come to treat of the trade of Mexico to Europe by that famous port. La Vera Cruz.

3. Mechoacan lies to the ſouth of Guadalajara, having the Pacific ocean on the weſt, and Mexico Proper on the eaſt. Mechoacan.

This province is of very conſiderable extent, the climate is ſo remarkably good, that people of weak conſtitutions retire thither from other parts of Mexico to recover their health. The ſoil is wonderfully fertile, producing all ſorts of

grain; here are many lakes, rivers, and rivulets of clear brackiſh water, which are of great uſe; for though the meadows through which they paſs produce a rank kind of graſs, yet it is never found to prejudice their cattle, but like other ſalt marſhes makes them extraordinary fat and fine. They have alſo a numerous breed of fine horſes, fit both for the ſaddle and draught. No place in the world is better furniſhed with fruit and timber trees. Here are mines of ſilver, and ſome of gold and copper; among its numerous productions are the cacao, or chocolate nut, the root mechoacan, ſeveral odoriferous gums, and balſams, ſarſaparilla, ambergris, vanillas, caſſia, *&c.*

At the time Cortes ſubdued the kingdom of Mexico, Mechoacan was an independent kingdom, and its ſovereign of ſuch power as to be formidable to the Mexicans, to whom he was an inveterate enemy; but was ſo much intimidated, when he heard of the deſtruction of that empire by the Spaniards, that he ſubmitted of his own accord, ſo that Cortes gained this province by his reputation only. The natives being now incorporated with the Spaniards, learn all kinds of trades, and are particularly curious in making cabinets, and weaving ſilk. But the number of the Indians is very much diminiſhed, not ſo much through any ſeverity of the Spaniards, as by their introducing of luxury among them, which was unknown in former times: for theſe people being of a weaker conſtitution than Europeans, are leſs able to ſupport

port exceſſes, to which however they are naturally too much inclined.

At preſent the cities in this province are numerous; but the principal of them is that of Mechoacan, which ſtands very pleaſantly on the banks of a large river, and not far from a conſiderable lake of the ſame name, about 120 miles weſt of Mexico. It is a large populous place, having a fine cathedral, and many elegant houſes belonging to the Spaniards, who are owners of the ſilver mines of Guanaxato, diſtant about twenty-ſeven leagues to the north; about fifteen leagues farther north, there are other mines, ſtill richer than the former. The Spaniards carry on the greateſt part of the trade of this province by land, having no good ports to do it by ſea.

4. Mexico Proper has on the north the province of Panuco, Mechoacan on the weſt, the Pacific ocean on the ſouth, and Tlaſcala on the eaſt. Mexico Proper.

This is not only the moſt conſiderable, but alſo the fineſt province in the whole empire. The climate is indeed variable; however, Europeans of ſound conſtitutions agree that it is both pleaſant and temperate. The ſoil is extremely fruitful; and though the Mexicans are as luxurious in their tempers, and have as much money wherewith to indulge their luxury, as any other people in the world, yet all the neceſſaries of life are ſurpriſingly cheap, which is a pregnant proof of the great plenty that abounds there. As to the commodities of this

province,

province, they are much the ſame with thoſe of Mechoacan and Tlaſcala, only the mines here afford a much greater quantity of ſilver, and this ſilver ſometimes contains a conſiderable quantity of gold. The royal city of Mexico is the capital of this province, of the audience, and of all New Spain; which, with the famous port of Acapulco, will be afterwards deſcribed, when treating of the trade of Mexico to the Eaſt Indies, by the ſaid port.

Guaxaca.

5. The next province is that of Guaxaca, which reaches from the bay of Mexico to the South ſea, having the province of Tlaſcala on the north-weſt, and thoſe of Chiapa and Tabaſco on the ſouth-eaſt. It extends about ninety-five leagues along the South ſea, fifty along the Mexican bay, and 120 along the confines of Tlaſcala: but not above fifty along thoſe of Chiapa and Tabaſco.

The air here is tolerably good, and the ſoil fertile, eſpecially in mulberry-trees, on which account it produces more ſilk than any province in America. If we except the charming valley of Guaxaca, the reſt of the province is generally mountainous, abounding with wheat, cattle, ſugar, cotton, honey, cacao, plantains, and other fruits. Here are rich mines of gold, ſilver, and lead, and all its rivers have gold in their ſands. It abounds alſo in caſſia, cocheneal, cryſtal, and copper; ſo that if the people in this province were induſtrious, they might be the richeſt in the Weſt Indies: but they are ſo much

much accuſtomed to indolence and lazineſs, that the Indians purchaſe proviſions by the gold which their women pick up in the ſands of the rivers.

The vinello, a drug, uſed as a perfume to give chocolate a flavour, is the produce of Guaxaca; it grows indeed in divers parts of New Spain, but no where ſo plentifully as in this province. This vinello is a little pod full of black ſmall ſeeds; it is four or five inches long, and when dried, reſembles the ſtem of a tobacco leaf. It grows on a fine ſort of vine, which climbs and claſps about trees; the flower is yellow, which turns to a pod. It is firſt green, but when ripe turns yellow; then the Indians, who manufacture and ſell it to the Spaniards at a very eaſy rate, gather it, and expoſe it to the ſun, which renders it ſoft, and it changes into a cheſnut colour. The principal uſe of this perfume is to give a flavour to chocolate, and ſometimes tobacco, in both which it is extremely agreeable.

This province was formerly reckoned to contain 150 conſiderable towns, beſides 300 villages, but at preſent it is ſaid to be thinly inhabited.

The city of Guaxaca is the capital of the province, beautifully ſituated in the valley of the ſame name. This delightful valley is forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth; the city contains ſeveral thouſand families, which are partly Spaniards and partly Indians; it is the ſee of a biſhop, and the reſidence of a governor. It

lies

lies about 230 miles ſouth of Mexico, and 132 from Vera Cruz; it is much frequented by ſtrangers, being on the road leading through Chiapa to Guatimala. The inhabitants of this city carry on a briſk trade both by the North and South ſeas. The river on which the city ſtands is not fortified, ſo that ſmall veſſels might eaſily ſail up and ſubdue the country. The beſt chocolate in America is made here by the nuns, and exported from thence to Spain. In this fertile valley are vaſt numbers of fine horſes, with great herds of black cattle and ſheep, which furniſh the clothiers of Los Angelos with wool, and Spain with hides. Beſides this city of Guaxaca, which ſtands in north latitude 18 deg. 2 min. there are many more in this extenſive valley, which are ſaid to be both rich and magnificent.

6. Eaſt from Guaxaca lies the province of Tabaſco, ſtretched along the gulf of Mexico, and of very inconſiderable extent. As it is a narow ſlip by the ſea-ſhore, neither its ſoil nor its climate are much to be boaſted of, the one being far from wholeſome, and the other not over fruitful. Our logwood cutters were wont to frequent this coaſt much, and procured great advantages to themſelves by trading with the Spaniards, who are very glad of any ſupplies of European commodities, having no ports of their own, and lying at a conſiderable diſtance from La Vera Cruz. There are no mines here, which is one reaſon perhaps why it is ſomewhat neglected; yet the people

Tabaſco.

have

have good farms, well ſtocked with cattle, which yield them conſiderable profit; and, beſides, they have great plenty of cacao, which they ſend leaden on mules to Vera Cruz. The only town of note is in the eaſtern corner of the province, and is called by the Spaniards *Noſtra Sennora de la Vittoria*, Our lady of victory.

7. The laſt province in the audience of Mexico is that of Ycatan, or Jucatan. Jucatan. It is a peninſula, ſurrounded on the north and on the weſt by the gulf of Mexico, on the eaſt by the gulf of Honduras, on the ſouth by part of the audience of Guatimala, and the province of Tabaſco. It extends from north latitude 17. to 21. 30. and from 91 to 95 deg. of weſt longitude.

This is in all reſpects a moſt noble country, and as ſuch deſervedly commended by Herrera, and all the Spaniſh writers. The climate is pretty warm in the ſummer, which begins in the month of April, and ends in that of September. The winter-ſeaſon is indifferently cool, excepting the months of January and February, which are almoſt as hot as in the midſt of ſummer; yet on the whole the country is wholeſome, eſpecially a ſort of mountainous tract which runs acroſs it from weſt to eaſt, and where the natives live to a great age. The ſouth ſide of this ridge is but thinly peopled, and very indifferently cultivated, as they have little water; but the northern parts are very populous, being rendered pleaſant by the refreſhing ſea-breezes, though the ſun is very hot.

The ſoil, where duly cultivated, produces plenty of corn, cotton, and indigo; but its principal commodity is logwood, for which the bay of Campeachy is deſervedly famous: but as no mines have been diſcovered in this country, the Spaniards are not fond of making ſettlements here, which, without doubt, is one great cauſe of its abounding ſo much with Indians. Theſe however live in ſubmiſſive obedience to the Spaniards. In the bay of Campeachy they are made uſe of in making ſalt, which is a very laborious employment, the poor creatures being forced to endure all extremities of weather, without either houſe or hut to protect them; they likewiſe keep their cattle, and do every other ſervile office, though unwillingly; for when an opportunity offers, they are ſure to run away into the woods, or elſe take ſhelter in ſome uninhabited iſland. This peninſula has very few rivers, but plenty of wells; and wherefoever they dig up the land, abundance of ſhells are found, which, with the lowneſs of the country, and the ſhallowneſs of the ſea about it, has induced many to think that the greateſt part of it has once been under water.

There are in this province ſeveral little towns, but four only of any conſiderable bigneſs.

The firſt of theſe is Mereda the capital, which is the ſeat of a governor, and the ſee of a biſhop. It ſtands near the north ſide of the peninſula, about twelve leagues from the ſea.

Mereda.

2. South-

2. South-eaſt from Mereda lies Valladolid, at no great diſtance from the bay of Honduras. It is a fair town, and pleaſantly ſituated, but withal very little known to ſtrangers. Valladolid.

3. In the iſthmus, or neck of land, which joins this peninſula to the continent of New Spain, ſtands the town of Salamanca, ſmall indeed, but well built, and at preſent in a very thriving condition. Salamanca.

4. But the moſt remarkable place in this province is the town of Campeachy, or, as it is called by the Spaniards, *San Franciſco de Campechy*. It is a fair town ſtanding on the ſhore in a ſmall bending of the land, and is the only town on all this coaſt, even from Cape Cotoche to La Vera Cruz, that ſtands open to the ſea. It makes a fine ſhow, being built all with good ſtone. There is a ſtrong citadel or fort at one end, mounted with many guns, where the governor reſides, with a ſmall garriſon to defend it. Though this fort commands the town and harbour, yet it has been twice taken; firſt by Sir Chriſtopher Mims, in the year 1659, who took it by ſtorm, only with ſmall arms. In the year 1678 it was again taken by the Engliſh and French bucaneers; but ſince has remained pretty quiet. Campeachy.

CHAP. VI.

The audience of Guatimala. A ſhort account of its provinces and principal towns, &c.

THis is the laſt audience in the kingdom of New Spain, and is little inferior to that of Mexico laſt deſcribed, both in fruitfulneſs of ſoil, and rich mines, and is as capable of improvement as any part in the Spaniſh empire of America.

It is bounded on the north by the audience of Mexico, and the bay of Honduras; on the eaſt by the North ſea, and the iſthmus of Darien; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Pacific ocean: ſo that it enjoys as advantageous a ſituation for trade as could be wiſhed. It is computed to be 300 leagues in length upon the South ſea, but of an unequal breadth, occaſioned by ſo many large bays both on the North and South ſeas, ſo that in ſome places it is no more than thirty leagues, and where broadeſt does not exceed 150.

It is divided into eight provinces, of which we ſhall give a very brief account.

1. The firſt province we ſhall mention is

Chiapa.

that of Chiapa, of a triangular form, and ſo ſituated, that though it come very near the ſea, yet no part of it reaches it. It lies between Tlaſcala and Jucatan, having the provinces of Vera Paz and Soconuſco on the ſouth. The middle part of it lies

ſixty

ſixty leagues from either of the ſeas; which renders the air cool and dry, but at the ſame time very healthy. The ſoil is diverſified, and generally fruitful, eſpecially in corn and timber, with abundance of pears, apples, and quinces; cochineal grows wild, and there is likewiſe plenty of cacao and cotton: but that which is the peculiar glory of this province, is its breed of horſes, which are thought the very beſt in all New Spain. Heretofore there was a great deal of gold found in this province, but for the want of Indians, and from the diſcovery of richer mines in other places, this is now come to nothing. In the hilly part, near the middle of Chiapa, there is ſuch a variety of vaſt and venomous ſerpents that few will venture to travel in thoſe parts.

There are two remarkable cities in this province, both of its own name. The first is, for diſtinction's ſake, called *Chiapa de los Indos*, Chiapa of the Indians, becauſe it is inhabited by the natives of the country, who are beyond exception the wittieſt, wiſeſt, and moſt civilized people in all the Spaniſh dominions; of which, if we had no other proof, this might ſeem ſufficient, that, by a ſpecial grant from the King of Spain, the citizens have the privilege of chuſing their own magiſtrates. The other city is called *Cividad Real*, the Royal city, inhabited by Spaniards. It is a biſhop's ſee, and reputed both rich and pleaſant.

Chiapa of the Indians.

Cividad Real.

2. The province of Soconuſco lies next to that

that of Chiapa, extending along the coaſt of the South ſeas for the ſpace of thirty-five leagues. The air here is far from being agreeable; ſtorms are frequent, and the rainy ſeaſon continues long and troubleſome; the ſoil too is none of the beſt, and produces little corn, but this is in ſome meaſure compenſated by the vaſt abundance of cacao. This province is moſtly in the hands of the natives, who are ſaid to be a proud, quarrelſome, and malicious ſet of people. The only place of conſequence here is the town of Guevitlan, which ſtands on the ſhore of the South ſea; a few Spaniards are ſettled here, though they will ſcarce venture themſelves in any other part of the province.

Soconuſco.

3. To the eaſt of the laſt-mentioned province lies that of Guatimala Proper, which extends along the coaſt of the South ſea upwards of 100 leagues; having on the north the two provinces of Vera Paz and Honduras.

Guatimala Proper.

It ſeldom rains here, but when it does, it falls very plentifully, and often continues for ſeveral days. Some places here are accounted as pleaſant and healthy as any in New Spain, but in general the climate is not good. The ſoil however is excellent and fruitful beyond compariſon, eſpecially in corn and delicious fruits. Cotton is one of its ſtaple commodities, as alſo honey and wax. The paſtures are ſo large and fine, that it is almoſt impoſſible to form

form an idea of the vaſt numbers of cattle which are fed in them.

The ancient city of Guatimala, (which was one of the fineſt in New Spain), was entirely deſtroyed in the year 1541, by a hurricane, whereby 120,000 Spaniards loſt their lives. The day before this tragical ſcene happened, ſome Indians acquainted the biſhop, that they heard a prodigious noiſe under the burning mountain ſeated above the city, which information he treated with contempt. At midnight, however, a terrible noiſe was heard as if in the bowels of the earth, and immediately a mighty torrent of water iſſued out of the mountain, which carried all before it, while a dreadful earthquake heightened the horror of the ſcene, and hindered any of the miſerable inhabitants from making their eſcape.

The new city of Guatimala, which is not only the capital of this province, but alſo of the audience, a place where the preſident and the royal courts reſide, the ſeat of a rich biſhop, and the centre of commerce in theſe parts, ſtands in a fine plain, at a good diſtance from the vulcano, which was fatal to the old city; however, it is far from being altogether out of danger from earthquakes, which are ſtill frequent in thoſe parts. This city is both neatly built and well inhabited, the citizens carrying on a great trade, not only through all the provinces of Mexico, but even into Peru, whereby ſome become extraordinary rich, who then generally leave the place, and go to reſide at Mexico.

The

The chief commodities in which they deal, are hides, indigo, anatta, cochineal, cacao, cotton, &c.; and indeed no city can be more conveniently ſituated for an extenſive commerce than this. It ſtands about eight leagues from the South ſea, and forty from the gulf of Mexico, by which the inhabitants carry on a great trade, having ſeveral ports and bays on both ſeas.

Vera Paz.

4. The province of Vera Paz lies between Guatimala and the gulf of Honduras; on the north it has that gulf and the province of Chiapa, and on the eaſt the province of Honduras. It is but of ſmall extent, and in figure a kind of oval; in length forty-eight leagues, and in breadth twenty-eight.

As to the climate, Spaniſh writers affirm, that one half of the province is very pleaſant and wholeſome, whereas the other is extremely hot and the air noxious. The ſoil is none of the beſt, the country being very rough and mountainous, producing little corn, but plenty of cedar-trees, drugs, and phyſical gums, &c.

This province had its name from the following accident: Being brought under the obedience of the Spaniards by the preaching of certain monks, hence it was called *Vera Paz*, that is to ſay, the land of true peace.

The capital of this province is the city of Vera Paz, a biſhop's ſee, rather neatly than elegantly built. All the rivers here run into the Gulfo Dulce, which at length forms a lake, and

then

then runs into the bay of Honduras, having a little port at its mouth, where there are many fiſhing-veſſels.

5. The province of Honduras is the largeſt in the audience, lying from weſt to eaſt along the bay of the ſame name, above 100 leagues in length, and near eighty in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the bay of the ſame name, on the weſt by Vera Paz, on the ſouth by the provinces of Nicaragua and Guatimala. Honduras.

The air in general is pretty agreeable, and the ſoil where duly cultivated extremely fertile, abounding both with European and Indian corn; its paſtures are rich and fine, and conſequently maintains vaſt herds of cattle. The rivers in this province moſtly overflow at certain ſeaſons like the Nile, and contribute thereby to the richneſs of the ſoil. Its principal commodities are cotton, wax, hides, Vigonia wool, logwood, beſides gold and ſilver.

The principal city here is that of Valladolid, which ſtands at a great diſtance from the ſea, not far from the confines of the province of Guatimala. It is now the ſee of a biſhop, which was removed from Truxillo in 1558. Beſides this there is the aforeſaid port of Truxillo.

Towards the weſtern extremity of the province there is another port, called *Porto-Cavallo*. The town is ſmall, but famous for being the port of the city of Guatimala, to and from which all commodities are carried, by a road

cut immediately through the rocks, on horſe-back. The town is but thinly inhabited, except occaſionally when a regiſter-ſhip arrives from Europe, when there is a ſort of fair held here; but of late this rarely happens.

Nicaragua. 6. Nicaragua is the next province, which lies both on the North and South ſeas. The air here is reckoned the beſt and cleareſt in the whole kingdom of Mexico, and the ſoil is remarkably good. It abounds with corn, fruits, and ſugar; as alſo with very fine timber, wax, cordage, tar, *&c.*

The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade to Panama, and Nombre-de-dios. This province is ſo pleaſant, as well as fruitful, that it may be juſtly called the garden of America; the hills and rivers are full of gold, the trees and woods perfumed; ſo that when the Spaniards firſt ſettled in it, they called it *Mahomet's paradiſe*. What adds much to its beauty, is the noble lake of the ſame name, which is near 130 leagues in circumference; it comes within twenty miles of the South ſea, and iſſues into the North ſea by a canal, at the mouth of which is the port of St John. This lake abounds with fiſh, which are ſo much the better on account of its having a flux and reflux, like the ſea.

The Spaniards employ themſelves generally either in commerce or farming, for both which no country can be more happily ſituated. Its native commodities are of great value, particularly cacao, of which though they have not the

the greateſt plenty, yet the cacao of Nicaragua is the largeſt and fineſt in the world.

The city of Leon is the capital of the province; it ſtands on the banks of the lake formerly mentioned, about thirty miles eaſt from the South ſea. It is ſituated in a fine plain, ſurrrounded with meadows; the houſes are not high, but ſtrong and large, with gardens about them. The inhabitants are rich and numerous, having plenty of fiſh and fleſh at eaſy rates. In the year 1685, it was taken and plundered by the bucaneers, who burnt it to the ground, but is ſince rebuilt and fortified. The city of Leon.

Its port on the ſouth is called *Rialexa*, which is a very good one, capable of receiving 200 veſſels. Here the King of Spain's ſhips for the South ſeas were formerly built. The town ſtands on a plain by a ſmall river, and ſerves not only for carrying on the trade of Leon, but alſo of Guatimala. Here are noble warehouſes near the ſea, and many factors reſide therein; but the town is but thinly peopled, on account of the bad air, and alſo having ſuffered ſo much by the deſcents of the bucaneers.

On the ſouth ſide of the lake, about ſixty leagues from Leon, ſtands the city of Granada; this town is more populous and better built than Leon, and is defended by a caſtle; the inhabitants trade both to the North and South ſeas. It is very much frequented, as the merchants of Guatimala diſpatch their goods from hence to Carthagena, Granada.

thinking it ſafer to ſend them this way, than by the gulf of Honduras. The country betwixt this city and Leon is very fruitful and pleaſant, and produces great quantities of ſugar, where the Spaniards have mills for making it.

7. The next province to the eaſt is called *Coſta-Rica*, the rich coaſt. It lies upon both ſeas, and yet the communication betwixt them is much obſtructed by the roughneſs of the country, and by a long chain of mountains which run acroſs it from eaſt to weſt. Its climate is far from being good; and its ſoil is ſtill worſe, being mountainous, woody, and barren, yet in ſome places the ſoil is good: but gold and ſilver, which the Spaniards value moſt, are found here in great plenty; the mines of Tinſigal are ſo rich, that they are preferred by the Spaniards to thoſe of Potoſi in Peru.

Coſta-Rica.

The capital of this province is Carthago, or Carthage, ſituated in the heart of the country, about ten leagues from the North, and ſeventeen from the South ſea, having the port of Nicoya on the latter, and that of St John on the North ſea. Mr Gage ſays, that in his time there were rich merchants here, who traded by land to Porto-Bello, Carthagena, Panama, and other places; that it had a Spaniſh governor, and was a biſhop's ſee.

8. The laſt province in the audience of Guatimala is that of Veragua, of no great extent, but excellent in its ſituation. It lies on both ſeas, which bound it on

Veragua.

on north and ſouth; on the weſt it has the laſt-mentioned province; on the eaſt, part of Terra Firma, and the government of Panama.

The country is very mountainous and woody, affording very little either of arable or paſture lands. But then it abounds in what the Spaniards regard much more than even the neceſſaries of life, that is, inexhauſtible mines of gold and ſilver, of which there are more in this little province, than in any of all New Spain, which is chiefly got out of their rivers, eſpecially after hard rains and ſtorms.

La Conception is the capital of the province, ſeated near the end of a bay that runs into the North ſea, forty-eight miles north from Santa Fe. It is both a large and rich city, where the governor and other of the King's officers reſide.

In the heart of the country is the town of Santa Fe, ſeated at the head of a river, which runs into the North ſea; here the King of Spain keeps officers for caſting and refining the gold.

Having now finiſhed our ſhort deſcription of the ſeveral provinces of New Spain, we ſhall next proceed to give an account of the gold and ſilver mines, which make the glory of this country; the manner of purifying thoſe metals, and of the quantities produced in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. After that we ſhall ſpeak of thoſe commodities which are produced here of moſt importance in foreign commerce, ſuch as cochineal, indigo, cacao, of which chocolate is made, logwood, *&c.* We ſhall alſo give an account

of

of the trade of Mexico, both with Europe and the Eaſt Indies.

CHAP. VII.

The gold and ſilver mines. The manner of purifying thoſe metals; and of the quantity of them produced in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

IT is certain that moſt of the provinces of New Spain produce mines either of gold or ſilver. The kingdom of New Mexico alſo produces conſiderable quantities of theſe metals, and of late they have diſcovered ſeveral mines there of great value; the ore of which they tranſport by land to the city of Mexico. It is however allowed, that the chief mines of gold are found in the provinces of Veragua, and New Granada confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver are both rich and numerous; few provinces either in New Spain or New Mexico wanting ſome of it, either in larger or leſſer quantities, but in none ſo much as in that of Mexico Proper. All the mines, whether of gold or ſilver, are generally found in the mountainous and moſt barren parts of the country; nature often making amends one way for her failures in another.

Gold is either found in the ſands of rivers, native, and in ſmall grains, or is dug out of the earth in the ſame condition in ſmall bits, almoſt wholly metallic, and of a tolerable purity; or it is found like the ore of other metals, in an

aggregate

aggregate opaque maſs, in a mixture of earth, ſtone, ſulphur, and other metals. In this ſtate it is of all colours, red, white, blackiſh, and making little or no oſtentation of the riches it contains. Sometimes it forms part of the ornament of ſome beautiful ſtones, which are of various lively colours, interſected with filaments of this metal. But gold, however found, whether native, or in what is called the ore, is ſeldom or never without a mixture of other metals, generally ſilver or copper.

The gold mines, though they contain the richeſt of all metals, yet often diſappoint the hopes and ruin the fortunes of thoſe who engage in them, though neither the labouring of the mine, nor the purifying the metal, is attended with ſuch an expenſe, as what thoſe are obliged to, who work mines of inferior metal. For the vein is, of all others, the moſt unequal, ſometimes very large, full, and rich, then it often decays by a quick gradation, and is ſometimes ſuddenly loſt. But the ends of the veins are, on the other hand, often extremely rich; they are called the neſt or purſe of the vein; and when the miner is ſo happy as to fall upon one of theſe purſes, his fortune is made all at once.

When the ore is dug out, the moſt uſual method is to break it to pieces in a mill, in this manner: A millſtone is ſet on end, and made to turn in a circular channel of ſtone; and the ore being laid in this channel, the turning of the millſtone bruiſes it ſmall. When the ore is thus broke,

broke, and the gold ſomewhat ſeparated from the impure maſs, they add to the whole a quantity of quickſilver. Quickſilver has, of all other bodies, the greateſt attraction with gold, which therefore immediately breaks the links which held it to the former earth, and clings cloſe to this congenial ſubſtance. Next, a rapid ſtream of water is let into the channel, which ſcouring, through a hole made for the purpoſe, the lighter earth, by the briſkneſs of its current, leaves the gold and mercury, precipitated by its weight, at the bottom. This paſte is put into a linen cloth, and ſqueezed, ſo as to make the quickſilver ſeparate and run out. To complete this ſeparation, it is neceſſary to fuſe the metal, and then all the mercury evaporates and flies off in fumes.

But in many parts of Spaniſh America another way of getting and purifying gold is practiſed. When by ſure tokens they know that gold lies in the bed of a rivulet, they turn the current into the inward angles, which time and the ſtream have formed; whilſt this runs, they dig and turn up the earth to make it the more eaſily diſſolved and carried off. When the ſurface is thus completely waſhed away, and they are come to a ſort of ſtiff earth, which is the receptacle of gold, they return the ſtream into its former channel, and dig up the earth as they find it, which they carry to a little baſin, ſomewhat in the form of a ſmith's bellows. Into this they turn a ſmall, but a briſk ſtream, to carry off the uſeleſs matter, whilſt they facili-

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tate the operation by ſtirring the maſs with an iron hook, which diſſolves the earth, and gathers up the ſtones, which are carefully thrown out, that they may not interrupt the paſſages that carry off the earth. By this means the gold looſened from the groſs matter which adhered to it, falls to the bottom, but mixed ſo cloſely with a black heavy ſand, that none of the gold can be perceived, unleſs it happens to be a pretty large grain. To ſeparate it from this ſand, it is put into a wooden platter; this they fill with water, and turning the maſs about quickly with their hands for ſome time, the ſand paſſes over the edges, and leaves the gold in ſmall grains, pure, and of its genuine colour, in the hollow at the bottom. Thus gold is refined without fire or mercury, merely by waſhing. The places where this is performed are called therefore *Lavadores* by the Spaniards.

Silver is the metal next in rank, but firſt in conſequence in the Spaniſh traffic, as their mines yield a much greater quantity of the latter than of the former. It is found under the earth in different forms, as indeed the ore of all metal is. Such is the diverſity of ores in this reſpect, that nothing but a long experience in this particular branch can exactly aſcertain the ſpecies of the metal, which almoſt any ore contains at firſt view. Sometimes ſilver almoſt pure twins itſelf about a white ſtone, penetrating into the vacuities in the ſame manner that the roots of trees enter into the rocks, and twiſt themſelves about them. Some are of an aſh-co-

loured appearance, others ſpotted, of a red and blue, ſome of changeable colours, and many almoſt black; but it is ſeldom or never found in grains or ſand, native, as gold is.

The manner of refining ſilver does not differ eſſentially from the proceſs which is employed for gold. They are both purified upon the ſame principle; by clearing as much of the earth as poſſible with water; by uniting or amalgamating it with mercury; and afterwards by clearing off the mercury itſelf, by ſtraining and evaporation. But the management of ſilver in this reſpect is much more difficult than that of gold. Becauſe this metal is more cloſely united to foreign matters with which it is found in the mine, and its attraction with mercury is much weaker; therefore there is great care taken in uniting of them, and it is a long time before they are perfectly mixed. But no ſilver is had by mere waſhing, without mercury.

Of the plenty of gold and ſilver which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid, and with juſtice, as this, with the other Spaniſh colonies in America, in a manner furniſh the whole world with ſilver, and bear a great proportion in gold to the whole of what the world produces. An ingenious author ſays, that the revenues of Mexico can hardly fall ſhort of twenty-four millions Sterling. He founds this aſſertion upon a return made by the biſhops of their tenths, which without doubt were not over-rated, and that theſe amounted to one million and a half; that theſe are about

a fourth of the revenues of the clergy, which, at that rate, amount to ſix millions; and that the eſtates of the clergy are about the fourth part of the whole revenues of the kingdom, which, at that rate, amount to twenty-four millions Britiſh money in whole. He takes another method of computing the wealth of this great empire, which is by the fifth paid to the King of the gold and ſilver dug out of their mines. This, he obſerves, in the year 1730 amounted to one million of marks in ſilver, each mark equivalent to eight ounces; ſo that if we compute this ſilver at five ſhillings *per* ounce, then the inhabitants receive from their mines yearly ten millions in money.

What a prodigious idea muſt this calculation give us of the united product of all the American mines? For the quantities of gold and ſilver produced in New Spain and New Mexico, are far inferior to the immenſe quantities of thoſe metals produced in South America, of which the reader will be informed when treating of that country.

CHAP. VIII.

Of cochineal, cacao, and ſilk.

COchineal, the next commodity for value which they export, is uſed in dying all the ſeveral kinds of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. After much diſpute about the nature of this curious drug, it ſeems at laſt agreed,

that it is of the animal kind, an inſect of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. This animal is found adhering to various plants, but there is only one which communicates to it the qualities which make it valuable in medicine and manufactures. This plant is called *opuntia* by the botaniſts; it conſiſts wholly of thick ſucculent leaves joined end to end, and ſpreading out in the ſides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit in ſhape reſembling a fig; this fruit is full of a crimſon juice, and to this juice it is that the cochineal inſect owes its colour.

When the rainy ſeaſon comes on, they who cultivate this plant cut off thoſe heads which abound moſt with ſuch inſects as are not yet at their full growth, and preſerve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. Theſe branches, though ſeparated from their parent ſtocks, preſerve their freſhneſs and juices a long time; and this enables the inſect not only to outlive the rains, but to grow to full ſize, and be in readineſs to bring forth its young as ſoon as the inclemency of the ſeaſon is over. When this time approaches, they are brought out and placed upon the proper plants, diſpoſed in little neſts of ſome moſſy ſubſtance. As ſoon as they feel the enlivening influence of the freſh air, they bring forth in three or four days from their expoſure at fartheſt. The young, ſcarce bigger than a mite, run about with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately peopled; yet what is very remarkable, this animal, ſo lively in its infancy, quickly loſes all

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its activity, and attaching itſelf to ſome of the leaſt expoſed and moſt ſucculent part of the leaf, it clings there for life, without ever moving, not wounding the leaf for its ſuſtenance, but ſucking with a proboſcis, with which nature hath furniſhed it.

What is not leſs remarkable than the life of this animal, is the nature of the male, which has no appearance of belonging to the ſame ſpecies; far from being fixed to a ſpot, he has wings, and is, like the butterfly, continually in motion: they are ſmaller than the cochineal, and conſtantly ſeen among them, and walking over them, without being ſuſpected, by thoſe who take care of the inſect, of being a creature of the ſame kind, though they believe that the cochineals are impregnated by them. But it is the female cochineal only which is gathered for uſe.

They make four gatherings a-year, which are ſo many generations of this animal. When they are ſufficiently careful, they bruſh off the inſects one by one with a ſort of hair pencils, and take them as they fall; but they often bruſh the whole plant in a careleſs manner, ſo that fragments of it are mixed with the cochineals, and themſelves mixed, the old and young together, which careleſſneſs abates much of the value. But what chiefly makes the goodneſs of this commodity, is the manner of killing and drying the cochineals, which is performed three ways: 1. By dipping the baſket in which they are gathered into boiling water, and afterwards dry-

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ing them in the ſun; this the Spaniards call *renegrida*. 2. The ſecond method is by drying them in ovens made for the purpoſe; this is called *jaſpeade*. 3. The third manner is, when the Indians dry them on their cakes of maize, which are baked on flat ſtones; this laſt is the worſt kind, as it is generally overbaked, and ſomething burned; they call it *negra*.

This drug has a very uncommon good quality, and the more extraordinary as it belongs to the animal kingdom, and to the moſt periſhable of that kind, yet it never decays. Without any other than having been put by in a box, ſome of them have been known to keep ſixty years, ſome even upwards of 100 years, and as fit for the purpoſes of medicine or manufacture as ever they were. It is uſed in medicine as a cordial and ſudorific, in which intentions few things anſwer better. And indeed as it anſwers ſuch good purpoſes in medicine, is ſo eſſential in trade, and produced only in this country, it may be conſidered in all markets as equivalent to gold or ſilver, by the certainty and quickneſs of the ſale. It is computed they annually export no leſs than 900,000 pound weight of this uſeful commodity.

The cocao, or cacao, of which chocolate is made, is likewiſe a conſiderable article in the commerce of New Spain. It grows upon a tree of a middling ſize; the wood is ſpungy and porous, the bark ſmooth, and of a cinnamon colour; the flower grows in bunches between the ſtalk and the wood, of the form of roſes,

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but ſmall, and without any ſcent. The fruit is a ſort of pod, which contains the cacao, much about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber. Within theſe is a pulp of a moſt refreſhing acid taſte, which fills up the interſtices between the nuts before they are ripe; but when they fully ripen, theſe nuts are packed up wonderfully cloſe, and in a moſt regular and elegant order. They have a pretty tough ſhell, and within this is the oily rich ſubſtance, of which chocolate is made. This fruit grows differently from our European fruits, which always hang upon the ſmall branches; but this grows along the great ones, principally at the joints. This cacao is a very tender tree, equally impatient of the wind, heat, or cold, and will flouriſh only in the ſhade; for which reaſon, in the cacao-walks, they always plant a palm-tree for each one of cacao. This tree is not confined to Mexico only, but grows in many places within the tropics, and in ſome of the provinces of Terra Firma it flouriſhes in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Their foreign and domeſtic commerce in this article is immenſe, and the profits ſo great, that a ſmall garden of the cacaos is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a-year. At home it makes the principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. They likewiſe export vaſt quantities of it, not only to Europe, but through moſt parts of America. It is neceſſary to obſerve, that this valuable fruit is often confounded with the cocoa-nut, which is a ſpecies wholly different.

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In ſome of the provinces of New Spain, as we formerly obſerved, they raiſe ſilk, but in no great quantities, though no climate under the ſun is better adapted for producing this uſeful commodity. The ſoil too is capable of producing great quantities of ſugar, indigo, and tobacco; but the Spaniards are generally ſo lazy and unactive, and depend ſo much on their mines of gold and ſilver, that they greatly neglect the cultivation of theſe, and many other valuable commodities.

CHAP. IX.

Of the manner of cutting the logwood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, and of the right the Britiſh nation have to that trade.

FOrmerly we cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, which is ſituated in the ſouth-weſt ſide of the peninſula of Jucatan, and continued to do ſo for a long tract of time, without much interruption, till the year 1722, when the Spaniards put an effectual ſtop to this lucrative trade. They fitted out five ſtout frigates, who took or burnt twelve Engliſh ſhips belonging to our North-American colonies, deſtroyed all the logwood they had cut, and put the cutters to the ſword; they alſo built forts, and made ſettlements there to prevent the Engliſh from returning.

Being thus expelled from Campeachy, the logwood cutters ſettled upon the gulf of Honduras,

duras, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the ſame peninſula, where they are in ſome ſort eſtabliſhed, and have a fort to protect them.

Theſe logwood-cutters are a very odd kind of people, compoſed moſtly of vagabonds and fugitives from different parts of North America, and their way of life is ſaid to be ſuitable. They live in a lawleſs manner, though they elect one amongſt them whom they call their king, and to him they pay as much obedience as they think proper. The country they poſſeſs is very low and extremely marſhy; the inhabitants are terribly moleſted with muſkettoes, and the waters dangerous by reaſon of vaſt numbers of alligators; however, a life of licentiouſneſs, plenty of brandy and other liquors, large gains, and a want of thought, have perfectly reconciled them to the hardſhips of their employment, and the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. They go always well armed, and in number are about fifteen hundred.

In the dry ſeaſon, when they cut the logwood, they penetrate a conſiderable way into the country, following the logwood, which runs amongſt the other trees in the foreſt like the vein of a mineral in the earth. When the rains have overflowed the moſt of the country, they have marks by which they know where the logwood is depoſited. This wood being weighty, ſinks into the water; however, it is eaſily buoyed up, one diver being able to lift very large beams, which they carry by favour of the landfloods into the river, to a place which they call

Barcaderas, or *Port*, where they meet the ſhips that come upon this trade. The ſailors alſo bring down quantities of it in the night-time in flat-bottomed boats for the purpoſe, and put it on board in the day-time.

In the 1716, when the debate concerning our right to this branch of commerce was revived, the Lords of Trade reported, "That before the year 1676 we had a number of "people ſettled, and carrying on this trade on "the peninſula of Jucatan; that we always "conſidered this as our right, and were ſupported in it by our kings; and that this right "was confirmed (if it had wanted any confirmation) by a clauſe of *Uti poſſidetis* in the "treaty of peace which was concluded with "Spain and the court of London in 1676; and "that we were in full poſſeſſion of thoſe ſettlements, and that trade, long before the time "of that treaty. Upon the whole, they concluded, that it was an affair well worth "the attention of the government, as in ſome "years it employed near 6000 tons of ſhipping, found employment for a number of "ſeamen proportionable, conſumed a good deal "of our manufactures, and was of conſiderable "uſe in fabricating many others; and that the "whole value of returns were not leſs than "60,000 pounds Sterling yearly."

The Spaniards of late have greatly interrupted us in this trade, and committed many cruel ravages upon our logwood-cutters; however, as we are now engaged in a war with that nation,

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it is expected, that our right to theſe places, and to that trade, will be aſcertained, either by force or treaty.

The logwood-trade is generally carried on by veſſels from New England, New York, and Penſylvania, who take up the goods they want in Jamaica.

CHAP. X.

The trade of Mexico. An account of that city, as alſo of the town and port of Acapulco. The trade of Mexico by that port to and from the Eaſt Indies; with a ſhort account of the diſcovery and ſettlement of the Philippine iſlands.

THE trade of Mexico may be conſidered as conſiſting of three great branches, by which it communicates with the whole world, *viz.* The trade with Europe by La Vera Cruz; the trade with the Eaſt Indies by Acapulco; and the commerce of the South ſeas by the ſame port.

Mexico the capital of the kingdom, the reſidence of the viceroy, the ſeat of the firſt audience, or chamber of juſtice, and an archbiſhopric, is certainly one of the richeſt and moſt ſplendid cities, not only in America, but in the whole world. This famous city is ſeated at the foot of a chain of mountains, in the midſt of a great lake, called from hence *the lake of Mexico*. In point of regularity, it is the beſt built city perhaps

The city of Mexico, north latitude 19 deg. 40 min.

in the univerſe, the ſtreets being ſo ſtraight, and ſo exactly diſpoſed, that from any part thereof the whole is viſible. There are five entrances into it, over as many cauſeys. All the buildings are convenient, ſome of them very magnificent, though not lofty, eſpecially the cathedral, churches, monaſteries, and nunneries; of the former there are twenty-nine, and of the latter twenty-two. We may form an idea of the riches of theſe, from the revenue of the cathedral, which amounts to at leaſt 70,000 pounds yearly, out of which, the archbiſhop receives annually 15,000 pounds, beſides prodigious ſums that accrue to him by way of perquiſites.

The city is ſaid to be upward of ſix miles in circumference, and to contain 100,000 inhabitants. But what is remarkable, it has neither gates, walls, nor artillery, and is in ſuch a weak poſture of defence, that four or five thouſand good troops properly conducted might eaſily make themſelves maſters of it. It is ſurpriſing that the Spaniards ſuffer it to continue in ſuch a defenceleſs ſtate, conſidering that it is not much above 100 miles from the eaſtern ſhore, and conſequently within five or ſix days march, the road from La Vera Cruz to Mexico being exceeding good.

But though Mexico be not a ſea-port town, nor communicating with the ſea by any navigable river, yet it has a prodigious commerce, and is itſelf the centre of all that is carried on between America and Europe on the one hand, and between America and the Eaſt Indies on the other;

other: for here the principal merchants reſide, the greateſt part of buſineſs is tranſacted; and the goods that paſs from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the uſe of the Philippines, and in great meaſure for Peru and Lima, all paſs through this city; and employ an incredible number of horſes and mules in the carriage. The moſt valuable commodities of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, together with thoſe of Europe, are daily expoſed to ſale in their markets. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined; here the King's fifth is depoſited; and here is wrought all that immenſe quantity of utenſils and ornaments in plate which are ſent every year into Europe. Every thing here has the greateſt air of magnificence and wealth; the ſhops glitter upon all ſides, with the expoſure of gold, ſilver, and jewels, and ſurpriſe yet more to ſee the treaſures which fill great cheſts, piled up to the ceilings, whilſt they wait the time of being ſent into Old Spain by the flota. It is ſaid that the negro wenches, who run by the coaches of the ladies here, wear bracelets of gold, pearl necklaces, and jewels in their ears; whilſt the black foot-boys are all over covered with lace and embroidery. Notwithſtanding the wealth and grandeur of this place, the military ſtrength of it is incredibly low; the viceroy has not about his perſon above four or five hundred men, which is perhaps owing to the jealouſy of the government at home: but at the ſame time it muſt be owned, there would be a great riſk run in putting arms

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into the hands of ſuch an unruly people as the bulk of the inhabitants really are, who, on the ſlighteſt grievances, threaten their viceroys to burn them in their palaces, or to tear them in pieces if they ſtir out, and who have ſeveral times ſhown an inclination to be as good as their words.

Acapulco. The port neareſt to this city upon the South ſea is Acapulco, from which it is diſtant about 200 miles. It is allowed to be an excellent harbour, far ſuperior to any on the coaſt, and is ſo ſafe and ſpacious that ſeveral hundred ſhips may ride in it, without the hazard of damaging one another. The mouth of the harbour is defended by a low iſland, about a mile and a half long, and half a mile broad, leaving a wide and deep channel at each end. They muſt enter with the ſea-wind, and go out with a land-wind; but theſe ſeldom or never fail to ſucceed each other in their proper ſeaſon day and night. The weſtermoſt channel is the narroweſt, but ſo deep, that there is no anchoring, and the Manila ſhips paſs into the harbour that way, but thoſe from Lima enter through the ſouth-weſt channel.

The town of Acapulco ſtands on the north-weſt ſide of the harbour cloſe by the ſea, and at the end of the town is a platform mounted with guns. Oppoſite to the town on the eaſt ſide, ſtands a high ſtrong caſtle, ſaid to have forty guns upon it of a very great ſize. Ships commonly ride near the bottom of the harbour, under the command both of the caſtle and platform.

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The commerce of this place with Peru is not, as many have miſtaken, confined only to one annual ſhip from Lima; for at all other ſeaſons of the year, except that when the Acapulco ſhips arrive, the trade is open, and ſhips from Peru come here frequently to ſell their own commodities, and carry back thoſe of Mexico.

But as the great importance of Acapulco is chiefly owing to its trade with the Philippines, we ſhall therefore firſt give a brief account of the diſcovery and ſettlement of theſe iſlands, and then ſpeak of the trade carried on betwixt them.

The celebrated circumnavigator Frederick Magellan, who was an officer in the King of Portugal's ſervice, having received ſome diſguſt from that court, either by the defalcation of his pay, or that his parts, as he conceived, were too cheaply conſidered, entered into the ſervice of the King of Spain, and being a man of great ability, was deſirous of ſignaliſing his talents by ſome enterpriſe, which might vex his former maſters, and teach them to eſtimate his worth by the greatneſs of the miſchief he did them; this being the moſt natural and obvious principle of all fugitives, and more eſpecially of thoſe, who being really men of capacity, have quitted their country by reaſon of the ſmall account that has been made of them. Magellan, in purſuance of theſe vindictive views, and knowing that the Portugueſe conſidered the poſſeſſion of their ſpice-iſlands as the moſt important acquiſitions in the Eaſt Indies, reſolved to inſti-

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gate the court of Spain to an enterpriſe, which, by ſtill purſuing their diſcoveries, would entitle them to interfere both in the property and commerce of theſe renowned Portugueſe ſettlements; and the King of Spain approving this project, Magellan, in 1519, ſet ſail from the port of Seville, in order to execute his deſigns. He had with him a conſiderable force, conſiſting of five ſhips, with 234 men, with which he ſtood for the coaſt of South America; and ranging along the ſhore, he, at laſt, towards the end of October 1520, had the good fortune to diſcover theſe ſtreights, now called from him *the ſtreights of Magellan*, which opened him a paſſage into the Pacific ocean. And this firſt part of his ſcheme being thus happily accompliſhed, he, after a ſhort ſtay on the coaſt of Peru, ſet ſail again to the weſtward, with a view of falling in with the ſpice-iſlands. In this extenſive run, he firſt diſcovered the La-

The Ladrone iſlands diſcovered.

drones, or Marian iſlands, which are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands about ſixteen or twenty in number. Guam, the largeſt, is forty miles long and twelve broad; here the Spaniards at preſent have a fort and a ſmall garriſon of thirty or forty men, and here the ſhips from Acapulco to Manila ſtop to take in proviſions. Theſe iſlands were full of inhabitants when the Spaniards diſcovered them, and are ſaid to be vaſtly fruitful, and the climate extremely agreeable. Commodore Anſon, in his voyage round the world, landed upon Tinian one of theſe iſlands in the year 1742, and ſtaid

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upon it for a conſiderable time, till he refreſhed his ſickly crew. This iſland is twelve miles in length and ſix in breadth, lying in 15 deg. 8 min. north latitude, and 114 deg. 50 min. weſt from Acapulco. But to return: From theſe iſlands, Magellan continued his courſe, till he arrived at the Philippines, which are the moſt eaſtern part of all Aſia; and there venturing too raſhly on the ſhore in an hoſtile manner, he was ſlain in a ſkirmiſh by the Indians.

The Philippine iſlands diſcovered.

By the death of the brave Magellan the original project of ſecuring ſome of the ſpice-iſlands was defeated; for thoſe who were left in command after him, contented themſelves with ranging through them, and purchaſing ſome ſpices from the natives; after which they returned home by the cape of Good Hope, being the firſt ſhips which ever had ſailed round the world, and thereby demonſtrated the reality of its being of a ſpherical figure. But though Spain did not hereby acquire the property of any of the ſpice-iſlands, yet the diſcovery made in this expedition of the Philippine iſlands was thought too conſiderable to be neglected; for theſe were not far from them, being well ſituated for the Chineſe trade, and for the commerce of other parts of India; and therefore a communication was ſoon eſtabliſhed and carefully ſupported between thoſe iſlands and the Spaniſh colonies on the coaſt of Peru; ſo that the city Manila, which was built on the iſland of Luconia, the chief of the Philippines, ſoon became the mart of all

Indian commodities which were bought up by the inhabitants, and were annually ſent to America, to be there vended on their account; and the return of this commerce to Manila being chiefly made in ſilver, the place by degrees became extremely opulent and conſiderable, while its trade ſo far increaſed as to engage the attention of the court of Spain, and to be frequently controlled and regulated by royal edicts.

In the infancy of this trade it was carried on from the port of Callao in Peru to the city Manila, in which voyage the trade-winds continually favoured them; ſo that, notwithſtanding theſe places were diſtant between three and four thouſand leagues, the voyage was often made in little more than two months: but then the return from Manila was extremely troubleſome and tedious, and is ſaid ſometimes to have taken them up above twelve months, which, if they pretended to ply up within the limits of the trade-wind, it is not at all to be wondered at; and it is certain, that in their firſt voyages they were ſo imprudent or unſkilful as to attempt this courſe. However, that route was ſoon laid aſide by the advice of a Jeſuit, who perſuaded them to ſteer to the northward, till they got clear of the trade-wind, and then, by the favour of the weſterly winds, which generally prevail in high latitudes, to ſtretch away to the coaſt of California. This has been the practice for at leaſt 160 years paſt; for Sir Thomas Cavendiſh, in 1586, engaged off the ſouth end of California a veſſel bound from Manila to

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the American coaſt. And it was in compliance with this new plan of navigation, and to ſhorten the run both backwards and forwards, that the ſtaple of this commerce was removed from Callao, on the coaſt of Peru, to Acapulco, on the coaſt of Mexico, where it continues fixed at this time.

Such was the commencement, and ſuch were the early regulations of this commerce; but its preſent condition being a more intereſting ſubject, we beg leave to be indulged in a more particular narration, beginning with a deſcription of the iſlands, particularly that of Luconia, and the port and bay of Manila.

The Philippine iſlands, though firſt diſcovered in 1521, yet no attempt was made to ſubdue and ſettle them till 1564, when they were both conquered and planted, and were ſo called in honour of Philip II. then King of Spain, and are at preſent in a moſt flouriſhing condition.

They are computed to be 1200 in number, and extend from north latitude 6 to near 20 deg. and from eaſt longitude 114 to 126, of which five or ſix hundred are pretty conſiderable. They are about 400 leagues from the Ladrones, and 120 ſouth-eaſt of China.

The chief of theſe iſlands is Luconia, or Manila, which, though ſituated in north latitude 15 deg. yet is eſteemed to be in general extremely healthy, and the water found there is ſaid to be as good as any on the globe. It produces all the fruits of the warm countries, and the Spaniards have intro- Luconia.

duced ſeveral American fruits, ſuch as the cacao, and many others, which proſper well. It abounds in a moſt excellent breed of horſes, ſuppoſed to be carried thither originally from Spain. In the woods are plenty of all kinds of wild beaſts, particularly buffaloes, which the Spaniards kill for their hides. The orange and lemon trees yield twice a-year; and an author who was there, affirms, that he never ſaw ſuch a verdant ſoil, and ſuch plenty of every thing neceſſary for life. However, theſe happy iſlands are not without their inconveniencies; for, beſides many noxious creatures and poiſonous herbs, they are very ſubject to dreadful earthquakes. This iſland is very well ſituated for the Indian and Chineſe trade: the bay and port of Manila, which lie on its weſtern ſide, are perhaps the moſt remarkable in the whole world; the bay being a large circular baſin near ten leagues in diameter, and great part of it entirely land-locked. On the eaſt ſide of this bay ſtands the city of Manila, which is very large and populous, and which, at the beginning of the laſt Spaniſh war in 1739, was only an open place, its principal defence being a ſmall fort, which was, in a great meaſure, ſurrounded on every ſide by houſes; but they have lately made conſiderable additions to its fortifications. The port belonging to the city is called *Cabite*, which lies near two leagues to the ſouthward; and in this port all the ſhips employed in the Acapulco trade are uſually ſtationed.

The city of Manila is in a very healthy ſitua-

tion,

tion, is well watered, and in the neighbourhood of a very fruitful and pleaſant country: but as the principal buſineſs of this place is its trade to Acapulco, it lies under ſome diſadvantage; from the difficulty there is in getting to ſea to the eaſtward; for the paſſage is among iſlands, and through channels, where the Spaniards ſpend much time, and are often in danger; however, they have free acceſs to China and the neighbouring iſlands, not being obliged to ply to the eaſtward.

The trade carried on from this place to China, and different parts of India, is principally for ſuch commodities as are intended to ſupply the kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, which conſiſts in ſpices; from Ceylon they purchaſe cinnamon; from Sumatra and Java, pepper; from the Molucca and Banda iſles, cloves; from Borneo, camphire; from China, all ſorts of ſilk manufactures, particularly ſilk ſtockings, of which, it is ſaid, no leſs than 50,000 pairs are ſhipped aboard the annual ſhips, beſides vaſt quantities of Indian ſtuffs, callicoes, chintz, which are much worn in America, together with other minuter articles, as goldſmith's work, &c. which is principally done at the city of Manila by the Chineſe, there being ſettled, as ſervants, manufacturers, or brokers, at leaſt 20,000 of that nation.

All theſe different commodities are collected at Manila, thence to be tranſported annually to the port of Acapulco. But this trade to Acapulco is not laid open to all the inhabitants of

Manila,

Manila, but is confined to very particular regulations, ſomewhat analagous to thoſe by which the trade of the regiſter-ſhips from Cadiz to the Weſt Indies is reſtrained. The ſhips employed herein are found by the King of Spain, who pays the officers and ſailors; and their profits are ſo large, that in one voyage they are capable of making eaſy fortunes. The tonnage is divided into a certain number of bales, all of the ſame ſize; theſe are diſtributed among the convents of Manila, but principally to the Jeſuits, as a donation for the ſupport of their miſſion for the propagation of the Catholic faith. Thoſe convents have hereby a right to embark ſuch a quantity of goods on board the Manila ſhips as the tonnage of their bales amounts to; or, if they chuſe not to be concerned in trade themſelves, they have the power of ſelling the privilege to others; and as the merchants to whom they grant their ſhares are often unprovided with a ſtock, it is uſual for the convents to lend them conſiderable ſums of money on bottomry.

The trade is, by the royal edicts, limited to a certain value, which the annual charges ought not to exceed. Some Spaniſh manuſcripts mention this limitation to be 600,000 dollars; but doubtleſs the charge far exceeds that ſum; and the return is reckoned not far ſhort of three millions of dollars.

It is abundantly obvious, that the greateſt part of the treaſure returned from Acapulco to Manila does not remain in that place, but is

again

again diſperſed into different parts of India. As all European nations have generally eſteemed it good policy to keep their American ſettlements in an immediate dependence on their mother-country, without permitting them to carry on directly any gainful traffic with other powers; theſe conſiderations have occaſioned many remonſtrances to be preſented to the court of Spain againſt the Indian trade, allowed to the kingdoms of Peru and Mexico, it having been urged, that the ſilk manufactures of Valencia, and other parts of Spain, are hereby greatly prejudiced, and the linens carried from Cadiz are much injured in their ſale, ſince the Chineſe ſilks, coming almoſt directly to Acapulco, can be afforded much cheaper there than any European manufacture of equal goodneſs; and the cottons from the Coromandel coaſt make the Europeans linens of little value; ſo that the Manila trade renders both Mexico and Peru leſs dependent upon Spain for a ſupply of their neceſſities than they ought to be, and exhauſts theſe countries of conſiderable quantities of ſilver, the greateſt part of which, were this trade prohibited, would centre in Spain, either in payment for Spaniſh commodities, or in gains to the Spaniſh merchants; whereas now the only advantage ariſing from it is enriching the Jeſuits, and a few particular perſons beſides, at the other extremity of the world. Theſe arguments ſo far influenced Don Joſeph Patinho, who was then prime miniſter of ſtate, but no friend to the Jeſuits, that about 1725 he had reſolved to

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aboliſh this trade, and to have permitted no Indian commodities to be introduced into any of the Spaniſh ports in the Weſt Indies, but what were carried thither in the regiſter-ſhips from Europe; but the powerful intrigues of the Jeſuits prevented this regulation from taking place.

This trade from Manila to Acapulco, and back again, is uſually carried on in one, or at moſt in two annual ſhips, which ſet ſail from Manila about July, and arrive at Acapulco in December, January, or February following; and having there diſpoſed of their effects, return for Manila ſome time in March, where they generally arrive in June; ſo that the whole voyage takes up very near an entire year. For this reaſon, though there is often no more than one ſhip employed at a time, yet there is one always ready for the ſea when the other arrives; and therefore the commerce at Manila are provided with three or four ſtout ſhips, that, in caſe of any accident, the trade may not be ſuſpended. The largeſt of theſe ſhips is little leſs than one of our firſt-rate men of war, and has at leaſt 1000 men on board. Their other ſhips, though far inferior in wealth to this, are yet ſtout large veſſels, of 1200 tons burden, and generally carry between five and ſix hundred hands, paſſengers included, with fifty guns. As theſe are all King's ſhips, commiſſioned and paid by him, one of the captains is uſually ſtyled the General, who carries the royal ſtandard of Spain at the maintop-gallant-maſt head.

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Theſe ſhips having received their cargo on board, and fitted for ſea, generally weigh from Cabite about the middle of July, taking the advantage of the weſtern monſoon, which then ſets in, to carry them to ſea. As the voyage is uſually ſix months, the ſhips deeply laden with goods, and crouded with people, it may appear wonderful how they can well be ſupplied with a ſtock of water for ſo long a time; and indeed their method is ſingular; they have no other recourſe but to the goodneſs of heaven for this ſupply. They meet with the rains between the latitude of 30° and 40° north, and to ſave it, ſpread mats ſloping againſt the gunwale of the ſhip, the lower edges of which mats reſt on a large ſplit bamboe, into which the water drains, and by this is conveyed into jars, as by a trough; for in the South ſeas the Spaniards uſe jars, and not caſks. Theſe jars are not only ſtowed thick between decks, but hung in the ſhrouds and ſtays; ſo as to exhibit at a diſtance a very odd appearance. This manner of ſupply, caſual as it ſeems, is never known to fail them; ſo that it is common, when their voyage is a little longer than uſual, to fill all their water-jars a ſecond time. This voyage being of much longer continuance than any other navigation, occaſions an inveterate ſcurvy among the crew; and one cauſe of the duration of this voyage is the ignorance as well as the indolence, with the unneceſſary caution of the Spaniſh ſailors, and concern for ſo rich a prize; for they ſeldom or never ſet the main-ſail in the night, and often

lie to unneceſſarily; ſo that they are more apprehenſive of too ſtrong a gale, though favourable, than for the ſickneſs and mortality ever attending ſo long a voyage, which might be contracted by altering their courſe, and ſteering at firſt north-eaſt and by north, into the latitude of 40 or 45 deg. in part of which courſe they would be greatly aſſiſted by the trade-winds, and alſo meet in the higher latitudes with ſteadier and briſker weſterly winds than in 30 deg. of latitude. Nor is this a matter of ſpeculation; for a French ſhip, in 1721, by purſuing this courſe, ran from the coaſt of China to that of Mexico in forty-nine days. To proceed: The Manila ſhip having ſtood ſo far to the northward as to meet a weſterly wind, ſtretches away nearly in the ſame latitude of 30 deg. for the coaſt of California; and when ſhe has run into the longitude of 96 deg. from Cape Eſpiritu Sancto, they meet with a plant floating in the ſea, which the Spaniards call *porra*, being a ſpecies of ſea-leek. On the ſight of this they conſider themſelves ſufficiently near the Californian ſhore, and immediately ſtand to the ſouthward; and after reaching Cape St Lucas on that coaſt, they proceed next to Cape Corientes, after which they coaſt along for the port of Acapulco.

The moſt uſual time for the arrival of the galleon at Acapulco is towards the middle of January; but this navigation is ſo uncertain, that ſhe ſometimes gets in a month ſooner, and at other times has been detained at ſea longer.

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When the galleon arrives in port, ſhe is moored on its weſtern ſide, and her cargo is delivered with all expedition. And now the town of Acapulco, from almoſt a ſolitude, is immediately thronged with merchants from all parts of New Spain. About the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima arrives, laden with the richeſt commodities of Peru, and at leaſt two millions of pieces of eight; theſe are laid out in the purchaſe of Indian commodities at the fair of this town, which laſts ſometimes thirty days, and at which ſuch as come from the Eaſt Indies furniſh themſelves with all ſorts of European goods, brought hither over land from the port of La Vera Cruz. When the fair is over, the goods belonging to the Mexican merchants are tranſported over land by mules to Mexico, and other places; thoſe which are deſigned for Peru, are laden not only in the annual ſhip, but many others. Heretofore the Lima ſhip was of very inconſiderable force, but of late they never employ any ſhips in this trade carrying leſs than forty guns, and ſhe alſo is allowed a tender, ſometimes two.

The cargo of the Manila ſhip being thus diſpoſed upon, they immediately make preparation for her return; and having received her loading on board, which conſiſts chiefly in ſilver, cochineal, ſweetmeats, together with European millinery ware for the women at Manila, and ſome Spaniſh wines, ſuch as tent, ſherry, *&c.* ſhe forthwith leaves the port of Acapulco, and ſteers for the latitude of 13° or 14°, and runs on

that parallel till ſhe gets ſight of Guam, where ſhe ſtays ſome time, and then proceeds to the port of Cabite, which is the port of the city of Manila, and the conſtant ſtation of all the ſhips employed in this commerce to Acapulco. The galleon in her return to Manila being not ſo deep laden, and having a fair wind the whole way, performs her voyage in twelve or thirteen weeks, and ſometimes leſs. Upon her arrival there, all expedition is uſed, in order to make her ready for her return to Acapulco.

This commerce to ſo vaſt a value, though carried on directly between the King of Spain's own dominions, enriches them in proportion but very little; the far greater part of every thing that comes from the Philippines, being the produce or fabric of other countries.

The town of Acapulco being ſurrounded on each ſide with high mountains renders the place very unhealthy; from the end of November to the end of May, they have no rain, and it is ſo hot in January, when the fair begins, that the merchants are obliged to tranſact all the buſineſs they can in the mornings. So that when the fair is over the town is almoſt deſerted, and few continue in it, but blacks and mulattoes: and it moſtly continues in this ſolitary condition, till the return of the next fair.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

Of the town and port of La Vera Cruz, the trade betwixt it and Europe. The flota, &c.

LA Vera Cruz is not only the beſt, but the only port the Spaniards have of conſequence in all New Spain on the North ſeas.

When Cortes landed on this coaſt, in order to undertake the conqueſt of Mexico, he founded the city of Old Vera Cruz, which he ſo named, becauſe he landed there on Good Friday in 1518, but ſince that time great alterations have happened, and this city is partly decayed, and partly deſtroyed. In the firſt place, the port was found to be bad, the air about the city unwholeſome; it alſo proved to be very weak and defenceleſs. At about ſixteen miles diſtance a very ſtrong and ſafe, though not capacious port was diſcovered, capable of being protected by a fort built upon a triangular rock, which fort, when erected, was called *St John de Ulua*. By degrees the Spaniards erected a town in the neighbourhood of this fort, which in proceſs of time drained the old town, and was thence called *New Vera Cruz*. It is ſituated in north latitude 19 deg. 16 min. about 120 miles from the city of Mexico. The town is not very conſiderable either in point of ſize, or the magnificence of its buildings: for on the one ſide being expoſed to vaſt clouds of dry ſand, and on the other to the exhalations of very rank

bogs

bogs and marſhes, it is ſo very unwholeſome, that ſcarce any Spaniards of note reſide there conſtantly. It always was, and is at preſent a place of very little ſtrength, as appears by its having been taken and plundered by ſome French and Dutch bucaneers in the year 1683, and the apprehenſions its inhabitants are in on the appearance of any ſtrange ſhips ever ſince.

In point of trade however it is one of the moſt conſiderable places not only in the New, but perhaps in the whole world. From this port it is that the great wealth of Mexico is poured out upon the old world; and it is from it alone, that they receive the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries that the old world yields them in return. To this port the annual fleet from Cadiz, called *the flota*, arrives about the latter end of November, after a paſſage of nine weeks.

The flota.

This fleet, which ſails from Cadiz, only conſiſts of three men of war as a convoy, and ſixteen large merchant-ſhips, from 500 to 1000 tuns burden. They are loaded almoſt with every ſort of goods which Europe produces for export; particularly all ſorts of woollens, linens, ſilks, velvets, laces, glaſs, paper, cutlery, all ſorts of wrought iron, watches, clocks, quickſilver, horſe-furniture, ſhoes, ſtockings, books, pictures, military ſtores, wines, and fruits, *&c.* So that all the trading parts of Europe are greatly intereſted in the cargo of this fleet. Spain itſelf ſends out little more than the wine and fruit. This,

with

with the freight and commiſſions to the merchant, and the duty to the King, is almoſt all the advantage which that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies. It is ſtrictly prohibited to load any commodities on board this fleet without entering the goods, the value, and the owner's name, in the India houſe at Seville; and when they return, they muſt bring a certificate from the proper officer there, that the goods were duly landed, and in the proper port. They are not permitted to break bulk upon any account until they arrive at La Vera Cruz; nor are they ſuffered to take in any other than Spaniſh paſſengers, nor them without a licence firſt obtained at the India houſe.

This fleet ſails generally from Cadiz in the month of September, that, by favour of the winds which reign about November, they may the more eaſily purſue their voyage to La Vera Cruz. In their paſſage they call at Porto-Rico, to take in water and freſh proviſions, then paſs in ſight of Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba; and according to the ſeaſon of the year, and nature of the winds, paſs either by the coaſt of Jucatan, or higher through the gulf, to La Vera Cruz, which lies at the bottom of it. The run of this fleet, according to the courſe we have mentioned, has been thus computed. From Cadiz to the Canaries, 250 leagues in ten days; from thence to the Antilles, 800 leagues in twenty days; to the moſt weſterly part of Cuba, 500 leagues in twenty days; from thence to La Vera Cruz,

260 leagues in about twelve days; in all 1810 leagues in ſixty-two days.

As the flota is deſigned to furniſh not only New Spain but the Philippines alſo with European goods, they are obliged to ſtay a conſiderable time at Vera Cruz, and generally winter in that port.

On the arrival of this fleet, the merchants from all parts of New Spain repair to this place; and there is held a great fair, which laſts for a conſiderable time, till the whole of the goods be diſpoſed of; during the time of the fair, the aſpect of this city is quite changed, for at other times it is comparatively deſerted, on account of its diſagreeable climate, but, during this period, it is one of the moſt populous places in the whole world.

When all the goods are landed, and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in her return for Old Spain, which are the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cacao, tobacco, ſugar, hides, and ſome Eaſt-India goods brought by the Manila galleon, and carried over land from Acapulco to this place. After taking in water and other neceſſaries, they make ready to depart, which ſometimes happens in May, but more frequently in Auguſt. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah in the iſle of Cuba, which is the place of rendezvous where they meet the galleons; another fleet which carries on all the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto-Bello, in the ſame manner that the flota ſerves

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for that of New Spain. When they arrive at this port, and join the galleons and the regiſter-ſhips that collect at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing of their veſſels are diſpatched to Spain, with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with the treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety. Theſe ſhips are called by the Spaniards, with propriety enough, the *flotilla*, or little fleet. The flota and the reſt of the fleet generally make ſome ſtay at the Havannah, before all the ſhips that compoſe them are collected and ready to ſail. As ſoon as this happens, they quit the Havannah, and beat through the gulf of Florida, and paſſing between the Bahama iſlands, they hold their courſe to the north-eaſt, until they come to the height of St Auguſtine; and then ſteer away to Old Spain.

When the flota has left La Vera Cruz, it has no longer the appearance of a place of conſequence, being a town in a very unhealthy ſituation, inhabited ſcarcely by any but Indians, meztezes, or negroes. All the merchants of any conſequence reſide at ſome diſtance, particularly at the city of Los Angelos, a place little inferior to Mexico itſelf for beauty and riches. The whole of the inhabitants of Vera Cruz, including ſlaves, Indians, and mulattoes, are computed to amount to about 3000, and the compaſs of the city is about half a Spaniſh league.

CHAP. XII.

Obſervations on the Spaniſh America trade. The regiſter-ſhips and guarda-coſtas.

JEalouſy is the glaring character of the court of Spain, in whatever regards their American empire; and they often ſacrifice the proſperity to an exceſſive regard to the ſecurity of their poſſeſſions. They attend in this trade principally to two objects; *viz. firſt*, the excluſion of all ſtrangers from any ſhare in it; 2*dly*, the keeping up the market for ſuch goods as they ſend; and they think both theſe ends beſt anſwered by ſending out only one annual fleet, and that from only one port in Spain, and to one port only in New Spain. Theſe views, which would be impolitic in any nation in Europe beſides, are judicious enough in Spain; becauſe the goods they ſend belonging moſtly to ſtrangers, and the profits upon the ſale in the Indies being the only thing that really accrues to themſelves, it is certainly right to conſult primarily how they ſhall get the greateſt returns upon the ſmalleſt quantity of goods. It would be quite otherwiſe, if all, or moſt of what they ſend abroad, were their own produce or manufacture. They are undoubtedly right too in keeping the trade very carefully to themſelves, though perhaps the means taken to attain that end, will not be thought ſo rational. By ſuffering all the trade to be carried on only between

two

two ports, they diſcourage in the old world all their other ſea-port towns from that emulation, which would not only enable them to traffic in foreign commodities, but in time to ſet up fabrics of their own; whereas now, with regard to the export of their commodities, they ſtand upon the level of ſtrangers: they cannot carry their produce directly to the beſt market; and it is very certain, that even trifling diſcouragements operate very powerfully where the commercial ſpirit is weak, and the trade in its infancy. Again, in the new world, this confinement of trade encourages interlopers, and an illicit commerce, too gainful for any regulation to prevent, and which may afford ſuch bribes as will diſarm the moſt rigid juſtice, and lull the moſt attentive vigilance. So that in reality it may greatly be doubted, whether the precautions, ſo ſyſtematically purſued, and improved from time to time with ſo much care and foreſight, are at the bottom of moſt advantage or prejudice to that nation.

It was probably ſome conſideration of this kind that firſt gave riſe to the cuſtom of regiſter-ſhips; it was found that this confined commerce ſupplied its extenſive object very imperfectly, and that thoſe who were at the watch to pour in contraband goods, would take advantage of this want of a regular ſupply from Spain.

Regiſter ſhips.

A regiſter-ſhip is ſo called, from its being regiſtered with all the effects embarked in Spain, in the books kept for that purpoſe in the chamber of Seville: and

the commerce carried on by theſe ſhips is in the following manner.

When a company of merchants having, as they conceive, juſt grounds to imagine that European goods are greatly wanted at ſome particular ports in the Weſt Indies, they draw up accordingly a memorial or petition, containing theſe reaſons in the conciſeſt and moſt conſpicuous terms, and lay it before the council of the Indies. The prayer of this petition is, that they may have leave to ſend a ſhip of three or four hundred tuns, or under, to the port ſpecified in the petition. When liberty is granted, they pay a certain ſum to the crown, which is generally about thirty or forty thouſand pieces of eight, beſides preſents of a conſiderable value to the King's officers from the higheſt to the loweſt. That this however may not induce any ſuſpicion of fraud, they regiſter their ſhip and loading, that it may appear conſiſtent with their petition and licence; and yet this ſhip of 300 tuns generally carries upwards of 600 tuns of goods, beſides accommodation for paſſengers. Copies from the regiſter are tranſmitted to the governor and royal officers at the port to which ſhe is bound; and ſuch is their diligence, ſuch their integrity, that when the ſhip comes to anchor in the port, they make a narrow inquiry; and yet there is ſeldom or never any fraud diſcovered, but, on the contrary, this ſhip of ſix or ſeven hundred tuns returns into Europe with an authentic certificate from all the King of Spain's officers, that ſhe does not carry quite

300

300 tuns, together with a bill of lading, in the ſame ſtrain of computation. This may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the integrity of theſe officers.

By theſe regiſter-ſhips there is ſometimes made a gain of no leſs than 300 *per cent.* which enables the owners to pay ſo largely for cheating the King, having firſt procured the money by robbing his ſubjects.

Theſe ſhips go to Buenos Ayres on the river Plate, St Martha in Terra Firma, Porto-Cavallo in the audience of Guatimala, and to many other places to which neither the galleons nor flota come; yet generally they return with theſe fleets, as they ſometimes go out with them, but part in certain latitudes. The Spaniſh grandees often intereſt themſelves in procuring licences for theſe ſhips; and ſome people do not ſcruple to ſay, that they find their account in it.

The profits accruing from this ſort of commerce, making thoſe concerned in it immenſely rich in a ſhort time, induced the Engliſh and Dutch, without the ceremony of a licence, to deal in this way; and for many years they ſucceeded in it to their wiſh, partly by the connivance of Spaniſh governors, and partly by employing force. At length this evil grew ſo flagrant, that the court of Spain determined to put an end to it, and, in order thereto, ſent new governors into America, with very preciſe orders on this head, declaring at the ſame time, that they ſhould be carried fully into execution.

Theſe

These inſtructions gave riſe to the *guarda-coſtas*, or guard-ſhips, which, before the laſt war with Spain, made ſo much noiſe. It cannot be denied but that the original ground for equipping them was good, ſince the Engliſh, in ſome meaſure, and the Dutch more openly, began to carry on an illicit trade by force. The Dutch ſhips employed in this trade were generally from twenty to thirty-ſix guns, and therefore valued nothing the governor of Carthagena could do to prevent their trading on that coaſt: but when the guard-ſhips were ſtationed here, they for ſome time put an end to that evil; for, falling in with ſome of theſe interlopers, they ſunk one and took two, the cargoes of which were worth more than 100,000 pounds Sterling; nay, finding on board them ſixteen Spaniſh merchants, who, on a ſignal given, were come off to trade, they hanged them all without mercy. The conduct of the Spaniards in this reſpect could not be condemned; for, without doubt, theſe illicit traders not only prejudiced the King of Spain, but even the fair traders of their own nation, by the clandeſtine commerce they carried on.

The guarda-coſtas.

The captains of theſe guard-ſhips, however, ſoon altered their conduct, and inſtead of taking contraband traders, infeſted the Britiſh commerce, and took, without diſtinction, all that came in their way, at firſt under very frivolous pretences, and at laſt without any pretence at all. As the governors reaped a conſiderable

derable profit from the prizes which theſe privateers, or rather pirates, brought into their ports, they were ready to ſend deceitful accounts to the court of Spain, which produced that ſpirit of obſtinacy, whereby they drew on themſelves the laſt war; and in order to chaſtiſe them for theſe unjuſt captures, the brave Admiral Vernon was ſent into thoſe parts with a ſquadron, who read them ſevere lectures before the ports of Carthagena and Porto-Bello, which it is to be preſumed they have not yet forgot.

CHAP. XIII.

Three ſorts of people in New Spain; the whites, Indians, and negroes; the characters of theſe. The clergy; their character: the civil government, its character.

THE inhabitants of New Spain are compoſed of people of three different races, whites, Indians, and negroes, or the ſeveral mixtures of thoſe. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, that is, born in America, but of Spaniſh parents; thoſe who are native Spaniards are moſtly in offices, or in trade, and have the ſame character and manners with the Spaniards in Europe; the ſame gravity of behaviour, the ſame natural ſagacity and good ſenſe; the ſame indolence, and yet a greater ſhare of pride and ſtatelineſs; for here they look upon being natives of Old Spain as a very honourable diſtinction, and are in return

looked

looked upon by the creoles with no ſmall ſhare of hatred and envy. The latter have little of that firmneſs and patience which makes one of the fineſt parts of the character of the native Spaniards. They have little courage, and are univerſally weak and effeminate. Living, as they do, in a conſtant enervating heat, ſurfeited with wealth, and giving up their whole time to loitering and inactive pleaſures, they have nothing bold or manly to fit them for making a figure in active life, and few or none have any taſte for the ſatisfaction of a learned retirement. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little conveniency, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance.

The clergy are extremely numerous, and their wealth and influence cannot be doubted among ſo rich and ſuperſtitious a people. It is ſaid, that they actually poſſeſs a fourth of the revenues of that whole kingdom, which, after all abatements, certainly amounts to ſeveral millions. And as to their numbers, it is not extravagant to ſay, that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, are upwards of one fifth of all the white people, both here and in other parts of Spaniſh America. But the clergy here being too ignorant in general to be able inſtructors by their preaching, and too looſe and debauched in their own manners to inſtruct by their example, the people are little the better for their numbers, wealth, or influence. Many of them are no other than adventurers from

Old

Old Spain, who, without regard to their character or their vows, ſtudy nothing but how to raiſe a ſudden fortune, by abuſing the ignorance and extreme credulity of the people. A great deal of attention is paid to certain mechanical methods of devotion. Moral duties are little talked of. An extreme veneration for ſaints, lucrative to the orders they have founded, or are ſuppoſed to patronize, is ſtrongly inculcated, and makes the general ſubject of their ſermons, deſigned rather to raiſe a ſtupid admiration of their miracles, than an imitation of the ſanctity of their lives. Franciſco de Coreal, a Spaniſh writer, relates a very ſtrange ſtory concerning the frauds and impoſitions of the Spaniſh clergy in the Indies, of which he was eye-witneſs; and as it is both entertaining, and may help us to form an idea of the character of theſe clergymen, we ſhall therefore tranſcribe it preciſely in his own words.

" It has been," ſays he, " a cuſtom time out " of mind with the clergy in the Indies, to " oblige the poor natives to carry pictures to " the church; theſe pictures are always of " ſome ſaint, and they perſuade them, that this " devotion will prove a means of making them " both rich and happy. And the reaſon aſſign- " ed for it is, that as ſoon as it is ſet or hung " up in the church, the ſoul of the ſaint de- " ſcends to inhabit it, and remains there ſo " long as the Indian who brought it behaves as " he ought to do. The prieſts make it their " buſineſs to turn this trick to their own ad-

" vantage, by rendering it a means of extort-
" ing money from the poor ignorant deluded
" people. In the firſt place, he muſt be well
" paid for making the ſoul of the ſaint de-
" ſcend; then there muſt be annual offerings
" to keep the ſaint in good humour with his
" Indian patron, and his family. But to my
" ſtory. It happened at Coban, in the pro-
" vince of Vera Paz, as I paſſed through it,
" that a certain Indian had paid his prieſt for
" placing a picture of St Dominic in a parti-
" cular place of the church; it alſo happened,
" that another Indian, who was jealous of this
" man, and thought he would ſucceed too well
" if his ſaint had ſo advantageous a place, came
" to the prieſt, and offered him double as much
" if he would place his favourite there, who
" was St Ignatius. Whether the latter ſaint
" was more in the prieſt's good graces, or whe-
" ther it was purely out of reſpect to the mo-
" ney, is uncertain; but ſo it was, that St Do-
" minic was forced to let St Ignatius take his
" place. Upon this a quarrel commenced be-
" tween the Indians, which quickly ſpread it-
" ſelf into two parties, who, after a ſharp battle
" of words, fell to blows, and ſeveral were left
" dead on the ſpot; at the ſame time neither
" of the ſaints appeared in the field, but re-
" mained as quiet in the church as if nothing
" had happened." From which it is evident, that even the inquiſition itſelf cannot hinder ſenſible Spaniards from treating the frauds of their churchmen with a juſt contempt.

The

The native Indians are ſaid now to be humble, dejected, timorous, and docile, and are quite altered from what they were formerly, being generally treated with the greateſt indignity. The ſtate of all people ſubjected to another people, is infinitely worſe than what they ſuffer from the preſſure of the worſt form, or the worſt adminiſtration of any government of their own.

The blacks here, as they are imported from Africa, have the ſame character as the blacks of our colonies, who are generally ſaid to be a ſtubborn hardy generation.

Such are the characters of the people, not only of New Spain, but of all Spaniſh America.

The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, which here are called *audiences*, conſiſting of a certain number of judges, divided into different chambers, more reſembling the parliaments in France than our courts. At the head of the chief of theſe chambers the viceroy himſelf preſides when he ſees fit. His employment is one of the greateſt truſt and power the King of Spain has in his gift, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. All employments here are held only by native Spaniards, and by them but for a certain limited time, moſt not above three years. Jealouſy, in this reſpect, as in all other things relative to the Indies, is the ſpirit that influences all their regulations; and it has this very bad effect, that every officer, from the

higheſt to the loweſt, has the avidity which a new and lucrative poſt inſpires; ravenous becauſe his time is ſhort, he oppreſſes the people, and defrauds the crown; another ſucceeds him with the ſame diſpoſitions, and no man is careful to eſtabliſh any thing uſeful in his office, knowing that his ſucceſſor will be ſure to trample upon every regulation that is not ſubſervient to his own intereſts. Thus theſe enſlaved people are obliged to ſubmit to be drained by a conſtant ſucceſſion of hungry and impatient harpies, who not only ruin the revenues, but diſcourage induſtry, and extirpate all public ſpirit.

There are ſome troops kept in New Spain, and a good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and for the ſupport of the fortifications there; but the ſoldiers are ſaid to be few, ill clothed, ill paid, and worſe diſciplined. The military here keep pace with the civil and eccleſiaſtical adminiſtration; ſo that every one in office here have their own intereſt more at heart than that of their King or fellow-ſubjects.

PART

PART III.

The Spaniſh ſettlements in Peru, Chili, Paraguay, and Rio-de-la-Plata.

CHAP. I.

Of South America in general. The diſcovery and conqueſt of Peru by Pizarro and Almagro.

THis vaſt country of South America is a kind of triangular peninſula, joined to North America by the iſthmus of Darien or Panama, and on every ſide is ſurrounded by the ocean. On the north it hath the little Antilles, and that part of the Atlantic ocean, commonly called *the North ſea*; on the eaſt the Atlantic, and on the weſt the Pacific ocean, or great South ſea. On this ſide the Spaniſh ſettlements reach from the iſthmus of Darien, to the ſtreights of Magellan, which is a tract of no leſs than ſixty degrees; but they are far from reaching from the ſea-coaſt to the heart of the country. On the North ſea, their territories extend no farther ſouth than the equinoctial line on the one ſide, and commence again at the Rio-de-la-Plata on the other ſide; the large country of Brazil, and that of the Amazons taking up the middle ſpace. From the river Plate the Spaniards claim rather than poſſeſs all the coaſt to the Magellanic ſtreights.

The

The large kingdoms of Terra Firma, and Peru, lie entirely within the torrid zone, and are conſequently extremely hot in many places; the country of Chili and Terra Magellanica lie in the ſouth temperate zone, and are very pleaſant and healthy. All the provinces in general are, in point of ſoil, abundantly fruitful; and if we conſider the immenſe quantities of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which have been extracted out of its bowels, it may well be conſidered the richeſt country on the globe. Of which the reader will be more particularly informed as we advance in our deſcription of that extenſive region; but at preſent we ſhall proceed to give a brief account of the diſcovery and conqueſt of the Peruvian empire.

Columbus having diſcovered all the coaſt of Terra Firma, as far as the iſthmus of Darien, and having repreſented it, as it really was, a country abounding in gold and other valuable commodities, encouraged Vaſco Nunez de Balboa to make further diſcoveries on theſe coaſts. He was a man of a graceful appearance, had got a liberal education, and was of a hardy conſtitution. He firſt ſurrounded Cuba, and diſcovered it to be an iſland; but left the gleanings of this field to thoſe who had leſs ambition, not finding the treaſures there he expected. He therefore went in purſuit of new land, and followed the tracks of Columbus to Darien, where he gained the friendſhip of ſome of the caziques, and conquered others. He was the firſt European who travelled over the iſthmus, and

thereby

thereby diſcovered the South ſea. He ſettled a colony upon that coaſt, and laid the foundation of the famous city of Panama. On his arrival here he received an imperfect account of the great empire of Peru, which opened a new field for diſcoveries; being in itſelf a much greater exploit than any of his countrymen had yet undertaken. But the Indians, who raiſed his hopes by reporting prodigious things of the wealth of the great kingdom, as they called it, at the ſame time greatly embaraſſed him by poſitively aſſerting, that the inhabitants of this country were a numerous and warlike people; and that it was in vain for him to think of the conqueſt of that country, with a handful of men.

Upon this information, Nunez reſolved to attempt nothing, till ſuch time as he received a commiſſion and a reinforcement from Spain: but Peter Arias was ſent over as governor by King Ferdinand, who alſo appointed Nunez lieutenant of the South ſeas. This naturally produced bad conſequences, as Nunez and Arias were always at variance; however, they came to a reconciliation, and Nunez was ſent with 300 men to make diſcoveries in the South ſeas. The confidence the Spaniards had in the conduct of this commander, occaſioned every thing to go on very cheerfully, and great expectations were formed from the ſucceſs of this enterpriſe, when he was ſuddenly recalled to Darien, where he was brought to a formal trial, upon a charge of treaſonable expreſſions, ſupported by falſe

witneſſes,

witneſſes, whoſe perjury gave Arias a colour for ſtriking off the head of Nunez his rival, though at the ſame time he blaſted the hopes and broke the ſpirits of his people.

Soon after the unjuſt death of Nunez de Balboa, Pedraria was appointed governor over his conqueſts; and his lieutenants reduced all that large tract which is now called *Terra Firma*, committing barbarities worthy of the man under whoſe authority they acted. Amongſt all the adventurers who acted under his commiſſion, none have made themſelves ſo famous, as thoſe of whom we are going to ſpeak.

The Spaniards being now become acquainted with the fame and wealth of Peru, this report induced three citizens of Panama, private men, and advanced in years, to undertake the conqueſt of it. The names of theſe three adventurers were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Ferdinand Lucques a prieſt, and a man of conſiderable fortune. They entered into this engagement in the moſt ſolemn manner. Lucques ſaid maſs, an oath of mutual fidelity was plighted, the ſacrament was divided into three parts, Lucques took one, and delivered the other two to his confederates. The firſt expedition, in conſequence of this confederacy, was made under extraordinary difficulties, and with very little ſucceſs. Pizarro, who commanded, ſpent two years in the ſhort navigation between Panama and the northern extremity of Peru, a voyage now made frequently in two weeks, ſince the winds and currents are known. He

landed

landed in the year 1525, and found that the wealth of the country was as great as he imagined; and that the reſiſtance he was like to meet in endeavouring to poſſeſs himſelf of it, would be full as conſiderable. This he put to the proof very early, by taking the raſh ſtep of attacking the inhabitants at his firſt landing, and thus letting them ſee all at once the worſt of his intentions. The difficulties he met with, and the reſiſtance his ill conduct occaſioned in the country, obliged him to return without effecting any thing conſiderable. But neither he, nor his aſſociates, after ſuch a length of time, or ſuch greatneſs of expenſe, were deterred from the proſecution of their ſcheme. It was agreed that Pizarro ſhould go into Spain, to obtain an exemption from the government of Pedraria, and to get for themſelves the grant of whatever they ſhould conquer. Pizarro (who, though not the monied man, was the ſoul of the enterpriſe) was to be chief governor, with the property of 200 leagues along the ſea-coaſt. Almagro they agreed ſhould be adelantado, or King's lieutenant; and Lucques, who was a prieſt, was to be firſt biſhop, and protector of the Indians. The other profits of the enterpriſe were to be equally divided. But as this was an enterpriſe of ambitious avarice, there was little faith obſerved. Pizarro ſolicited only his own ſuit in Spain, and obtained for himſelf alone the property of the land, the government, the lieutenancy, and every thing which he was capable as a layman of taking; Almagro was forgot,

and to Lucques was left his eventual biſhopric.

On his return, this too early diſcovery of breach of faith was like to ruin all; but Pizarro, who knew how to retreat as well as to advance, yielded up to Almagro every thing he could reaſonably deſire; and nothing now obſtructed the embarkation, which, after all, did not exceed 180 men.

Before we proceed, it may not be unneceſſary to ſay ſomething of the perſons who had the conduct of this grand undertaking. Francis Pizarro was the natural ſon of a gentleman of good family. His education was as irregular as his birth, he could not even read: but then he had a great deal of that capacity and fitneſs for the world, which is obtained by much ſtruggling in it, and by being early made dependent on a man's own induſtry; hardened to life, dexterous in affairs, never ſetting his heart upon a part of his deſigns, whilſt the total was at ſtake, of a penetrating ſagacity into the nature of man, artful, bold, diſſembling, and cruel. Almagro had likewiſe enough of that deſperate bravery and roughneſs of body and mind, ſo neceſſary in a deſign of this ſort. In their birth there was no conſiderable difference; Pizarro was a baſtard, and Almagro a foundling. Pizarro owed nothing to education, Almagro depended wholly upon his natural parts.

The character of Pizarro and Almagro.

The great empire of Peru was governed by a race of kings which they called *Yncas*. The twelfth

twelfth in ſucceſſion was then upon the throne. The firſt of this race, named *Mango Capac*, was a prince of great genius, with that mixture of enthuſiaſm, which fits a man to make great changes, and to be the legiſlator of a forming nation. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had principally a veneration for the ſun. He therefore pretended that he was deſcended from that luminary, whoſe authority he was deſigned to bear, and whoſe worſhip he was by that authority to enforce. By this perſuaſion, eaſily received by a credulous people, he brought a large territory under his juriſdiction; a larger was ſubdued by his arms; ſo that he made uſe of deceit and force in order to accompliſh his deſigns. By this means he united and civilized the diſperſed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts, he ſoftened them by the inſtitutions of a benevolent religion, though of a falſe kind: in ſhort, there was no part of America in which agriculture and the arts were ſo much and ſo well cultivated, nor where the people were of a milder nature, and more ingenious manners. The yncas, deſcended, as they imagined, or at laſt pretended, from ſo ſacred an original, were themſelves reſpected as divinities. In none, even of the Aſiatic countries, was there ſo entire an obedience to the royal authority. But here it was rather filial than ſlaviſh. As to the character of the Peruvians themſelves, they ſeem to have had a ſtrong reſemblance to the ancient Egyp-

The ariſe of the yncas in Peru.

tians: like them, under a ſky conſtantly ſerene, they were a people induſtrious and ingenious; cultivating the arts, but without bringing them to perfection; inclined to ſuperſtition, and of a ſoft unwarlike temper.

The Ynca Guaiana Capac having conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru, to ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, married the daughter of the natural prince of the country. By her he had a ſon called *Atabalipa*. By a former marriage he had a ſon named *Hueſcar*, heir of his other dominions. On his death Hueſcar, his eldeſt ſon, claims his whole dominions, both hereditary and acquired. Atabalipa, the youngeſt, without pretending to the reſt, would keep as his right by the double title of ſon to the conqueror, and to her whoſe inheritance that kingdom was, fortified beſides by the will which the dying ynca had made in his favour. This diſpute kindled a civil war, which, after ſeveral turns of fortune, ended at laſt in favour of Atabalipa; he not only routed his brother's armies, and over-run his dominions, but actually held him a priſoner in the tower of Cuſco.

Such was the poſture of affairs when the Spaniards arrived in Peru, whoſe remarkable appearance and ſurpriſing feats of arms were every where ſpread about the country, and cauſed a general alarm.

Atabalipa, newly ſeated on a precarious throne, was not the leaſt alarmed at this event; for a new-erected power has every thing to fear from

whatever

whatever ſets the people's minds, ſtill unſettled, upon a new motion. He therefore reſolved, if poſſible, that his enemies ſhould take no advantage of the arrival of thoſe ſtrangers, by engaging them by all means to his own intereſt. He therefore received the ambaſſadors which Pizarro had ſent with the greateſt marks of honour; though their diſcourſe to him was very impertinent. He even went out to meet Pizarro with a vaſt number of attendants, to whom he gave the ſtricteſt charge upon no account to offer the leaſt injury to the ſtrangers; but Pizarro, who advanced with other notions, ſoon convinced him that a contrary caution was more neceſſary. They met near a celebrated temple, where the Spaniards were drawn up in order of battle. The firſt perſon who addreſſed the ynca was a friar, who advanced to him with a croſs in his hand, and began a moſt unſeaſonable diſcourſe upon the birth and miracles of Chriſt, exhorting him to become a Chriſtian, on the pain of eternal puniſhment. The ynca, though utterly aſtoniſhed at ſo unaccountable jargon, behaved with decency and gravity, telling him, that he believed that he and his companions were children of the ſun, recommended himſelf and his ſubjects to their protection, and made no doubt but they would behave to them in a manner worthy the offspring of ſo beneficent a deity.

Whilſt theſe diſcourſes continued, the Spaniſh ſoldiers, whoſe leaſt buſineſs to Peru was to liſten to ſermons, obſerving a conſiderable

quantity

quantity of gold in the neighbouring temple, had their zeal immediately ſtirred up, and a party of them began to pillage it. The prieſts made ſome oppoſition; but a diſturbance and a great noiſe enſued, which ſo alarmed our adventuring apoſtle, that he let fall his croſs and breviary in a fright, and turned his back upon his intended proſelyte. The Spaniards who were not concerned in the pillage, ſeeing him fly, either that they judged the Heathens had offered their prieſt ſome violence, or that Pizarro made uſe of this ſignal to them to fall on and execute the orders he had previouſly given, the Spaniards inſtantly fired the great guns amongſt the thickeſt of the Indians, and the muſketeers made a terrible diſcharge, the drums beat, the trumpets ſounded, and the horſe fell in three ſeveral ways among the unſuſpecting and unreſiſting people, defenceleſs through a religious obedience to their ſovereign's command, and, with every circumſtance of the moſt deliberate and ſhocking barbarity, ſlaughtered 5000, which was near the whole number of the Indians, who fell without any anxiety for their own lives, preſſing forward, with all the zeal and officiouſneſs of a moſt heroic loyalty, to the chair of their prince, to expire at his feet; and as faſt as one ſet of ſupporters were ſlain, the others ſucceeded with eagerneſs to ſupply their places, and ſhare their fate. At laſt Pizarro with fifteen choſen men marched up to the chair on which Atabalipa was carried, where he

Atabalipa's attendants maſſacred, and himſelf taken priſoner.

ſlew

ſlew thoſe that ſupported it, ſeized the ynca, and took him priſoner.

Pizarro conveyed Atabalipa to his own quarters, where he directed the plunder to be brought, which was immenſely rich, conſiſting of large gold and ſilver veſſels and utenſils, fine garments, with jewels and ornaments belonging to the ynca, the royal family, and the principal officers. This maſſacre of the Indians happened the 3d day of May 1533, though Pizarro celebrated it with a feſtival, as if it had been a glorious victory. The next day he ſent out a detachment to plunder the ynca's camp, which was incredibly rich; and this he gave to his ſoldiers as a reward for their barbarity.

Atabalipa was very deſirous of obtaining his liberty, and having obſerved the inſatiable avarice of the Spaniards for gold and ſilver, he promiſed to give them 10,000 bars of gold for his ranſom, with as much ſilver, in ſeveral ſorts of veſſels, as would fill a great room in the caſtle of Caxamalca, beſides many valuable jewels, and his friendſhip upon all occaſions. Pizarro promiſed the ynca his liberty upon delivering of the treaſure; in conſequence of which Atabalipa ſent orders to the governors of Cuſco, and his other principal cities, to bring a ſufficient quantity of gold and ſilver for his ranſom. Whilſt theſe were preparing, three Spaniards who were ſent to Cuſco to ſuperintend in the work, had means of conferring with Hueſcar; who quickly finding their foible, and the uſe his brother had made of it, made bitter complaints

plaints of the injuries he had ſuffered, begging the Spaniards, as the patrons of the oppreſſed, to embrace his cauſe, promiſing threefold the treaſure for their aſſiſtance which Atabalipa was to pay for his ranſom. He received a very favourable anſwer. Mean-time the Spaniards treated the ynca with all manner of civility, admitted his attendants to him, but no talk of his liberty. As ſoon as Pizarro had been apprifed of Hueſcar's negotiation with the Spaniards, and Almagro's arrival with an additional force, he began to be under great apprehenſions. To eaſe himſelf upon one ſide, he ſent immediate orders to have Hueſcar put to death; and accordingly he was privately aſſaſſinated.

Hueſcar aſſaſſinated.

The arrival of Almagro, on the other hand, cauſed ſome embarraſſment in Pizarro's affairs. This commander, finding that Pizarro had ſeized the ynca with immenſe treaſures, and having already experienced his ill faith, conſulted with his principal officers about leaving Pizarro's part to himſelf, and ſeeking their fortune elſewhere. Whilſt this was in agitation, his ſecretary, moved by ſome reſentment to his maſter, gave Pizarro notice of the deſign. In an inſtant Pizarro ſaw how diſadvantageous ſuch a ſtep muſt prove to him, with ſo ſmall a force, all reſources at a diſtance, and the country exaſperated by the deteſtable action he had lately committed. He ſaw that all depended upon removing every ſuſpicion from the breaſt of Almagro. For this purpoſe, and as ſomething of

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an ill mind in his moſt maſterly actions, he began by ſacrificing the ſecretary, and informed Almagro of his treachery. Next, though gold was the great object of his undertakings, yet he knew how to relinquiſh ſome part to ſecure the reſt. He agreed to divide the ſpoil between Almagro and himſelf, and to make no diſtinction between the ſoldiers of either in the diſtribution. This made an entire and hearty reconciliation, which was no ſooner concluded than the ynca's ranſom came in.

But this vaſt treaſure, the capital object of all their labours and villanies, no ſooner came into their poſſeſſion, but its conſequence was very near proving the utter ruin of their affairs. It is ſaid, and not improbably, that the whole exceeded the ſum of 1,500,000 pounds Sterling, a ſum vaſt at the preſent time, then a prodigy. On the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the Emperor, and the ſhares for the chief commanders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000 pounds Engliſh money. They had now made a fortune even beyond their imaginations; but the ſoldiery were ruined, and the greateſt part of them inſiſted upon being diſcharged, that they might enjoy their fortunes in quiet. This propoſal ill ſuited with the ambitious views of the commanders. Almagro was for proceeding in the uſual way to enforce obedience by the ſeverity of military diſcipline; but Pizarro oppoſed him: "Let them go," ſays he, "they cannot do us better ſervice; "here we ſhall have them mutinous and cow-

" ardly ſoldiers, at home they will act for us as " recruiting officers with great ſucceſs; for " when it ſhall be ſeen that common ſoldiers " have made ſuch large fortunes, we ſhall not " long want better men to ſupply their places." In due time the prophecy of Pizarro was accompliſhed, and their army never wanted reinforcements.

Though Atabalipa had paid a prodigious ſum for his liberty, as before related, yet Pizarro was determined to put him to death. However, to juſtify his conduct in this barbarous proceeding, he cauſed a formal charge to be drawn up againſt him, digeſted under ſeveral heads: 1ſt, For being an idolater. 2dly, For having many concubines. 3dly, For waſting the treaſures of the kingdom, and raiſing taxes ſince the arrival of the Spaniards. And, laſtly, for the murder of his brother Hueſcar. An attorney-general was appointed to manage the accuſation, and an advocate appointed from amongſt themſelves aſſigned for his defence. In vain did the more numerous and better part of the army proteſt againſt this proceeding, and lodge an appeal to Spain; in vain did they allege their want of power to judge a foreign prince for any crimes, and the abſurdity of the crimes with which this prince was charged. Before ſuch judges, and with ſuch an advocate to defend him, the ynca was condemned to be burnt alive. When death was pronounced againſt the royal victim, he bitterly exclaimed againſt the injuſtice

Charge againſt the ynca.

His ſentence.

injuſtice of the ſentence, demanding what he, his wives, or his children had done, to be ſo cruelly treated? He likewiſe deſired to be ſent over to Spain, to be tried before the Emperor; and ſaid, if the court of Spain could find him guilty of any crime, he ſhould cheerfully ſubmit to their ſentence. But the cruel hearts of the judges were inexorable, although they had no better authority to judge and condemn this prince, or even his ſubjects, than pirates and banditti have to take away the lives of their unhappy captives. To complete this violation and mockery of all laws, human and divine, the ſame Father Vincent, who had ſignalized himſelf upon a former occaſion, was ſent to comfort and inſtruct him in his laſt moments. The chief argument uſed to convert him to Chriſtianity was, that on his embracing the faith, inſtead of being burnt, his ſentence ſhould be mitigated to ſtrangling. This prince ſubmitted to baptiſm, and was immediately ſtrangled in priſon. Pizarro gave the final ſtroke to his hardened and ſhameleſs villany, by giving him a magnificent funeral, and going into mourning. But the unjuſt death of Atabalipa was afterwards revenged on his two judges, who both periſhed by their own diſſenſions; Almagro being formally condemned to die by Pizarro, who was afterwards aſſaſſinated by the ſon of the former.

His death.

The death of the ynca was no ſooner ſpread abroad, than the principal nobility at Cuſco elected Huana Capac, the brother and heir of

Hueſcar, for their Emperor. Pizarro ſet up the ſon of Atabalipa, called Toparpa, and two generals of the Peruvians ſet up for themſelves. Thus was this wretched country torn in pieces at once by foreigners, and by a domeſtic war amongſt themſelves.

Pizarro being alarmed and apprehenſive at theſe commotions, came to a reſolution of poſſeſſing himſelf of the capital city of Cuſco, and began his march with all his forces, conſiſting of about 400 Spaniards, beſides confederate Indians.

Atauchi, Atabalipa's brother, ſurpriſed the Spaniards upon their march to Cuſco, killing ſome of them, and making ſeveral priſoners; however, Pizarro continued his march, being attacked by many parties of Indians, at ſome difficult paſſes in the mountains. Several thouſands of Indians were deſtroyed in theſe engagements, among which was the new ynca Toparpa; which convinced them that they were incapable of reſiſting the artillery and horſes of their enemies, therefore they fled to their capital city, which was ſoon abandoned by its numerous inhabitants, who fled in the utmoſt conſternation to the woods and mountains, leaving the Spaniards to enter their metropolis without any oppoſition, in the month of October 1534, where they found a prodigious booty, notwithſtanding the citizens had ſufficient time to remove the greateſt part of their treaſure, and had put fire to ſome parts of the city, which was ſoon extinguiſhed by the Spaniards.

Pizarro

Pizarro permitted his men to plunder, but with a reſtriction, that all ſhould be divided in common after a fifth was deducted for his Catholic Majeſty. They found ſuch quantities of gold and ſilver, made into veſſels, bars, or other kinds of ornaments, that was aſtoniſhing; for when the fifth was taken out for the King, the treaſure was divided into 480 parts, each of which amounted to 4000 pieces of eight, being 344,000 pounds Sterling in the whole, excluſive of the King's fifth.

Pizarro took poſſeſſion of the magnificent city of Cuſco, with the greateſt ſolemnity, for his Catholic Majeſty; eſtabliſhing a council and forming a colony. Quizquiz, and ſome other Peruvian generals, were ſo exaſperated to ſee the Spaniards in the poſſeſſion of their imperial city, that they aſſembled a numerous army with which they agreed to attack their enemy; lamenting their deplorable fate, and complaining of their gods, who had permitted their religion, temples, and all things ſacred to be overthrown; their eſtates ruined, themſelves baniſhed, their wives and children made captives, and ſuch multitudes of men ſlain; they ſighed for their yncas; but upbraided the memories of Hueſcar and Atabalipa, by whoſe diſſenſions a few invaders had an opportunity of poſſeſſing themſelves of ſo extenſive and populous an empire. The Indians made two attacks upon the Spaniards, who marched out of Cuſco to meet them, and both times defeated them; after which the Peruvian generals retreated into the province of Quito,

Quito, and took poſſeſſion of the capital city; which obliged Pizarro to ſend a detachment there, under the command of Sebaſtian Belalcazar, who defeated the Indians, took their capital city, and would have brought the whole province into ſubjection, if he had not been interrupted by the arrival of a large body of Spaniards from Mexico, under the command of Don Pedro de Alvarado, who landed 800 men in Peru. Alvarado was one of the principal officers that accompanied Cortez in the conqueſt of Mexico, and had obtained the government of Guatimala, from whence he ſet ſail, with the hopes of acquiring great quantities of gold and ſilver in Peru. Almagro was ſent by Pizarro to reinforce Belalcazar, and oppoſe Alvarado; but all hoſtilities were prevented by a conference between Almagro and Alvarado, wherein it was agreed, "That Pizarro ſhoud pay the latter "near 18,000 l. Sterling; that ſuch of the of-"ficers and ſoldiers who came with Alvarado, "as deſired it, ſhould ſerve under Pizarro in "Peru; and that Alvarado ſhould return to his "government of Guatimala;" which was accordingly put into execution, after an interview between Pizarro and Alvarado.

The troops left by Alvarado made the Peruvians deſpair of emancipating themſelves from the Spaniards, to whom they generally ſubmitted as their conquerors. Pizarro then employed himſelf in building towns, and eſtabliſhing colonies, on the ſea-coaſt; particularly he built the cities of Lima and Truxillo; dividing the

country

country about them among his officers and ſoldiers, together with the native Indians upon thoſe lands, who held what the Spaniards were pleaſed to allow them, by the baſeſt tenures, being obliged to manure and cultivate their lands, carry burthens like horſes or mules, and perform ſuch other ſervile offices, in their fields and houſes, as rendered their condition no better than an abſolute ſlavery; for they were tranſferred with the lands to any purchaſer, obliged to work in the mines, fiſh for pearls, and to undergo ſuch rigorous labour, that many thouſands of them periſhed, whereby the country in a few years was almoſt depopulated.

The court of Spain received the treaſures ſent by Pizarro for his Catholic Majeſty, who conferred the title of Marquis upon that general, and honoured Almagro with the title of Marſhal of Peru, as alſo with the government of that part of the country which extended 600 miles to the ſouthward of the government aſſigned to the Marquis Pizarro. Upon this intelligence, Almagro aſſumed the title of governor of Cuſco, and acted no more in ſubordination to the Marquis; whoſe brothers entered into a formal war againſt Almagro, which was ſoon terminated by the preſence of the Marquis, who afterwards ſent the Marſhal on an expedition to Chili; wherein he was pretty ſucceſsful, but returned to claim his right to the government of Cuſco, which the Marquis Pizarro had conferred upon his brother Ferdinand.

The ynca Manca Capac was confined like a priſoner

priſoner by the Spaniards, in the caſtle of Cuſco, from whence he eſcaped, and raiſed a general inſurrection among the Indians, who aſſembled three armies, to cut off Almagro in Chili, to inveſt Lima, and beſiege Cuſco; the latter of which was undertaken by the ynca himſelf in perſon, at the head of 200,000 men: but though the ynca took the caſtle of Cuſco, he was obliged to abandon it by the fury of the Spaniſh artillery, which deſtroyed ſeveral thouſands of the Indians, and deterred them from reattempting the ſiege. Another party undertook the ſiege of Lima, but were equally unſucceſsful: however, they deſtroyed ſeveral detachments of the Spaniards, and continued in arms for ſeveral years, before they were entirely ſuppreſſed, which happened on the death of their ynca.

In the mean time Almagro took poſſeſſion of Cuſco, and defeated a party which was ſent by Pizarro to diſpoſſeſs him: but Pizarro afterwards defeated Almagro, took him priſoner, and ordered him to be ſtrangled privately in priſon, and his body was afterwards beheaded publicly on a ſcaffold. Almagro's ſon ſoon after revenged his father's death, by aſſaſſinating the marquis in his own palace, where he killed him and his brother-in-law Don Francis de Alcantara.

Almagro ſtrangled in priſon.

Pizarro aſſaſſinated in his own palace.

Thus fell theſe two conquerors of Peru; who with 400 Spaniards conquered upwards of four millions of Indians; whereby they obtained the poſſeſſion

poſſeſſion of the richeſt country in the world, lived in the ſtate of ſovereign princes, and were ſuperior in wealth to the richeſt monarchs in Europe; though it is obſerved, that both of them were of mean extraction, and had received little or no advantage from education; they alſo died and were buried, with the ſame obſcurity in which they were born.

The young Almagro was immediately proclaimed governor of Peru; but Vaca de Caſtro, arrived from Spain, with that title, defeated Almagro, and beheaded him; whereby his party became totally extirpated. The new governor endeavoured to check the licentiouſneſs of the Spaniards, and to grant many indulgences to the Indians; which offended his ſoldiers, ſo as to give Gonzalo Pizarro an opportunity of raiſing a mutiny, and of aſpiring to become the ſole ſovereign of the empire of Peru, without any dependence on the crown of Spain; in which he ſucceeded ſo far, as to make the Spaniſh miniſtry imagine, that he had uſurped the ſovereign authority over Peru, and would extend it all over America. Upon this occaſion, his Catholic Majeſty ſent Don Gaſco over, with the title of preſident of the royal court; who arrived at Panama in Auguſt 1546, when he prevailed on Hinojoſo, who commanded the fleet kept there by Pizarro, to revolt, and declare for his Majeſty; which was followed by the defection of ſeveral of the land-forces. Pizarro, however, was determined to defend his uſurpation, and muſtered 900 well-armed veterans in Lima only,

beſides the forces he had at Cuſco, La-Plata, and other places; which he collected together, and, in October 1547, defeated 800 men commanded by Don Centeno, one of the royal generals: but, in April 1548, the preſident Gaſco began his march towards Cuſco, at the head of 1600 veteran Spaniards, with 10,000 Indians, attended by a fine train of artillery; whom Pizarro marched againſt, and met near Cuſco; when his troops deſerted to the royaliſts, and Pizarro was obliged to ſurrender himſelf a priſoner; after which he was carried to Cuſco, and formally beheaded as a traitor.

The death of Gonzalo Pizarro was far from terminating the diſſenſions among the Spaniards of Peru; which obliged Gaſco to divide his forces, and ſend ſome of them upon other expeditions; particularly he ſent Don Pedro Baldivia to finiſh the conqueſt of Chili. His Catholic Majeſty publiſhed an order, that the Indians ſhould be treated as freemen, and paid for their labour in the mines; which occaſioned ſeveral inſurrections, wherein ſome of the viceroys, who ſucceeded Gaſco, were murdered. The principal revolt was conducted by Hernandez Giron; who had a conſiderable army; with which he at firſt defeated the royaliſts, but was afterwards taken priſoner, and beheaded at Lima, as a traitor, which put an end to the rebellion: and from that time, being the month of November 1554, the Spaniards may be properly ſaid to have been in the peaceable poſſeſſion of Peru; though the ſubduing the firſt turbulent

bulent adventurers, who endeavoured to render themſelves independent of the crown of Spain, proved a much more difficult taſk than the conqueſt of the defenceleſs Indians.

CHAP. II.

The extent and boundaries of Peru. The nature of the ſoil and climate, with a deſcription of the Andes or Cordillera mountains, and of the South ſea. An account of the lakes, ſprings, and rivers of Peru, and the commodities of the country for export.

THE conqueſt of Peru, achieved in ſo extraordinary a manner, brought into the power of Spain a country not leſs wealthy nor extenſive than New Spain, but far ſuperior to it for the conveniency of habitation, and agreeableneſs of the climate. Like Mexico it is within the torrid zone; yet having on one ſide the South ſea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes through its whole length, the joint effects of the ocean and its mountains temper the equinoctial heat in a manner equally agreeable and ſurpriſing.

Before the Spaniards invaded this country, it was ſeparated into two grand diviſions: the northern limits terminated at the river Paſſao, or the Azure river, almoſt under the equator: the ſouthern boundaries extended as far as the country of the Araucoes, a nation of Chili, in 40 deg. of ſouth latitude, or at leaſt as far as the

river Maule in 35 deg. The Andes were the eaſtern confines, and the weſtern part was bounded by the South ſea, or Pacific ocean.

The limits of modern Peru are much the ſame now as formerly, except on the ſouth; for the Spaniards ſtill bound it on the north by the province of Popayan, which extends to the equator, by the Andian mountains on the eaſt, by Chili on the ſouth, and the Pacific ocean on the weſt; whereby it extends from the equator to about 25 deg. of ſouth latitude, or about 1500 miles from north to ſouth; but as the land runs very irregular from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, it muſt be near 1800 in length; it is alſo generally about 160 miles in breadth from weſt to eaſt, but in the ſouthern parts its breadth extends to 4 or 500 miles.

The face of the country is very different, as it is more or leſs diſtant from the ſea; the whole is generally divided into three long ſlips: 1*ſt*, The Lanos, which are ſandy plains, running along the ſea-coaſt, about thirty miles broad. 2*dly*, The Sierras, which are hills beyond thoſe plains, intermixed with beautiful valleys, being about ſeventy-five miles broad. 3*dly*, The Andes, or Cordillera mountains, ſtill farther within the land, which are ſteep craggy mountains, far ſurpaſſing all the reſt in height, and are about eighty-five miles broad.

The Andes and Sierras.

The Andes and Sierras are two ridges of mountains that run from north to ſouth, parallel to each other, for above 3000 miles; but beyond the city of Cuſco,

in

in latitude 13 deg. 30 min. ſouth, theſe two ridges of mountains expand into a greater diſtance from each other, and incloſe betwixt them a fruitful and extenſive plain, which is called *the province of Callao*, watered with many rivers, and by the great lake of Titicaca, ſaid to be 240 leagues in circuit, into which moſt of theſe rivers fall.

The Andes are cold barren mountains, where ſnow continues moſt part of the year. The Sierras, although they have the appearance of a general ſterility, yet there are fine valleys between them, yielding great plenty of grain, and variety of excellent fruits. The Lanos are very barren, except a few valleys into which the inhabitants turn ſmall winding ſtreams.

The Andes are one of the greateſt prodigies of nature, both with reſpect to their extent and altitude, being about 5000 miles long, and in ſome places 120 broad, with many intermediate valleys, which are habitable as far as the tropics, but not beyond them, becauſe of the perpetual ſnows with which they are always covered. The height of theſe mountains along the coaſt of Peru is unparallelled, and the aſcent is ſo prodigious, that three or four days muſt be ſpent in arriving at the top of them, and as many more in the deſcent, that is, what may be properly called, from and to the bottom of the mountain; for otherwiſe it may be affirmed, that paſſengers begin to aſcend even from the ſea-ſide, the whole way riſing gradually to the very foot of theſe aſtoniſhing mountains, on

which

which account the rivers run with ſurpriſing rapidity, eſpecially near their ſources.

Herrera ſays, there are two chains of mountains in the Andes, one being much lower than the other, covered with ſpacious woods and beautiful groves, which is owing to the fine temperature of the air; but the cold is ſo ſevere upon the higher, that they are deſtitute even of buſhes and graſs, or any kind of plant, though there are ſeveral kinds of animals on both chains. The yncas of Peru cauſed two grand highways to be cut through the Andes, one of them 2700 miles in length, from Poſto to Chili, and twenty-five feet broad, being well-paved, and having noble buildings at the diſtance of every twelve miles, ſome of which are ſtill exiſting; for there are places called *Tambos*, ſomewhat like European inns, where every thing neceſſary is to be found for the ſupport of travellers. The other way went by the plain, at the foot of the mountains, being alſo twenty-five feet broad, with the ſame proportion of buildings, having ſtreams and rivulets brought there by art for the refreſhment of travellers.

When travellers aſcend the higheſt point of the mountains, it is with much difficulty they can breathe, by reaſon of the pureneſs and frigidity of the air. The cold on theſe mountains is ſo piercing, that many have periſhed in going over them to Chili; and others who have eſcaped with their lives, have loſt their fingers and toes. In order therefore to avoid theſe

dangers,

dangers, the Spaniards, who formerly paſſed this way into Chili, go now either by ſea or by the ſide of theſe mountains.

Herrera alſo obſerves, that people go through theſe mountains as if they were treading upon clouds, ſometimes ſeeing the valleys without any oppoſition to their ſight, but when they look up cannot ſee the heavens for clouds; whereas, when they reach their lofty ſummits, they can no longer perceive the earth for the clouds beneath them; but the heavens above them are one clear and unclouded expanſe, through which the ſun darts out his cheering rays: nor is it leſs admirable, while they travel over theſe hills, and perceive tempeſts and ſtorms falling into the valleys at a diſtance, while the ſerenity over their heads is ſo great, that no cloud is to be ſeen to diſcompoſe the beautiful proſpect.

There are many vulcanoes in this chain of mountains, of which there are no leſs than ſixteen betwixt the latitudes of 26 and 46 deg. ſouth, which, at ſeveral times have opened with ſuch terrible exploſions as to cauſe very dreadful and aſtoniſhing effects to all the circumjacent countries. Theſe are ſaid to be as terrible as the eruptions of mount Ætna in Sicily, or Veſuvius in Naples.

However theſe mountains are ſaid to be very rich in mines, but two cauſes may be aſſigned why theſe riches are not diſcovered; the firſt, being that general and inviolable maxim among the Indians, of concealing all their treaſures

from

from any other nations; for if any among them, either out of intereſt, or a motive of conveniency, ſhould diſcover any thing of this kind, his death would be inevitable, and no power on earth could ſave him from the revenge of his countrymen. The other reaſon for not ſeeking after theſe mines, is the great plenty of gold and ſilver they find in the rivers and valleys; however, if theſe were exhauſted, it is probable that the Spaniards, in ſome future period, may ſeek for the mines and treaſures concealed in the bowels of theſe mountains.

There are many frightful precipices and deep rivers at the ſides of the narrow paſſes in the Andes, which frequently occaſion the loſs of mules and travellers. The ſtreams run with ſuch violence, and ſo far below the roads, that they cauſe a dizzineſs in the head of the ſpectator. The aſcents and deſcents are ſo ſteep, that they are difficult to paſs on foot; but the difficulty of the way is ſomewhat alleviated by the beautiful caſcades which the water forms in the rocks; beſides, the water naturally ſprings up to a great height in ſome of the valleys, like artificial fountains, among odoriferous plants and beautiful flowers, which yield a delightful proſpect.

The only ſea that waſhes the coaſt of Peru is the South ſea, or Pacific ocean; the ſhore is generally high and bold, where there is no landing, except at the ports, or in ſome particular bays. This vaſt ocean, bordering upon Peru and Chili, is alſo

The Pacific ocean, or great South ſea.

alſo called *the South ſea*, becauſe it lies towards the antarctic pole, from whence the ſouth wind blows, in oppoſition to the *North*, which reigns in the ocean as far as the arctic pole; ſo that a ſouth wind is eſteemed as favourable in Peru and Chili as the north wind is in Europe; which made Ovalle call the Europeans *ſons of the north*, and the natives of South America *children of the ſouth*. The South ſea is alſo called *the Pacific ocean*, on account of that conſtant ſerenity of weather which reigns there from 4 to 30 or 35 deg. of ſouth latitude, along the greateſt part of the coaſts of Peru and Chili, as alſo indefinitely from the American ſhore to the Eaſt Indies. But it might alſo have been called *the Pacific ocean*, on account of the ſingular tranquillity of its navigation, which, Ovalle ſays, is ſeldom interrupted by other Europeans; though, both before and ſince his time, the Engliſh, Dutch, and French have made the Spaniards ſenſible, that they could navigate in theſe ſeas, and convince them of their inſecurity.

Herrera obſerves, that the motive which induced Magellan to call this *the Pacific ocean*, was, becauſe there was not in all that element a more ſpacious career for the wind and tide; and becauſe there reigns ſo ſtrong and ſteady a levant between the tropics, that the ſeamen, for ſeveral days together, have no occaſion to handle their ſails, or the ſteerſman to move his helm, ſailing through theſe extenſive ſeas, as if they were paſſing along a river or canal.

The moſt frequent navigations of the South

ſea are from Peru to Panama, and from thence to New Spain, and the Philippines, but thoſe from Peru to Chili are leſs uſed; by which it appears, that the greateſt part of the commerce carried on in theſe ſeas is between the tropics, where the ſun has ſo much force as to keep the winds from being furious, and from making ſuch continued ſtorms as are raiſed without the tropics, and in parts nearer the poles. However, Ovalle ſays, the South ſea does not deſerve the name of *Pacific* ſouthwards beyond the tropic of Capricorn, becauſe navigators undergo great hardſhips between the 26th degree of ſouth latitude and Cape Horn, (which is the moſt ſouthern extremity of America); for as ſoon as the winter begins, the ſea cannot be navigated without manifeſt danger; and about the iſland of Chiloe, in 43 deg. ſouth, the ſea is very dangerous even in ſummer. It is impoſſible to conceive any thing more terrible than the ſtorms and hurricanes which always happen about the ſouthern extremity of America in the winter-ſeaſon, of which we have the moſt dreadful accounts in the hiſtory of Lord Anſon's voyage to the South ſeas, who doubled that ſtormy cape, and underwent the moſt incredible hardſhips and dangers.

That part of the Pacific ocean which waſhes the coaſts of Peru and Chili, ſwells and runs with long high ſurges at the new and full moon; but at the ſame time ſhips are ſafe enough at ſea, as theſe waves never break there, though, where they fall in upon the ſhore, they

make

make it very dangerous landing. At Guiaquil, in 3 deg. of ſouth latitude, the tide runs very ſtrong, and riſes ſixteen or eighteen feet perpendicular; but it does not riſe ſo high on any part of the coaſt to the ſouthward, where there are not ſuch bays, or ſo many rivers as here; for the tides always run ſtrongeſt and riſe higheſt in gulfs or bays of the ſea, and up the mouths of rivers. Funnel obſerves, that the winds in the Peruvian ſeas, and on all the weſtern ſide of America, from 38 deg. ſouth to 7 deg. north are always ſoutherly two points upon the ſhore, ſo that where the coaſt runs north and ſouth, the wind is at S. S. W. and where the coaſt runs S. S. E. the wind is due ſouth, except it is in the night, when the ſea-wind generally ceaſes, and there comes a fine moderate gale from the land, which they call *the land-breeze*. Dampier remarks, that the ſoutherly winds on the coaſt of Peru continue to blow in that direction for 140 or 150 leagues from the ſhore before they alter, but then they may be perceived to veer about more eaſterly; and about 200 leagues to the weſtward of that ſhore, the true trade-winds ſet in at E. S. E. which never alters till they have paſſed the Pacific ocean, and arrive at the Eaſt Indies. Both Dampier and Funnel relate, that at Arica, which lies on the coaſt of Peru, in 18 deg. of ſouth latitude, and for near 100 leagues to the ſouthward, this ſea is very ſubject to calms within thirty-five or forty leagues of the ſhore, but that theſe calms are not uſual on any other

part of the coaſt. It is alſo obſerved, that when the ſun is in the northern ſigns, *viz.* from March to September, the ſky is generally bright and clear, though, when he returns back to the ſouthern ſigns, the weather is ſo thick and hazy that they cannot take an obſervation, notwithſtanding they have no rain at ſea, or upon the coaſt.

Climate and foil.

The weather in Peru is various according to the ſituation of the lands. In the lanos and valleys it never rains, and the ſky for the moſt part is cloudy, which ſhield the inhabitants from the vertical rays of the ſun; but every night a ſoft benign dew broods upon the earth, which refreſhes the graſs and plants ſo as to produce in ſome parts the greateſt fertility; what the dew wants in perfecting this, is wrought by the vaſt number of ſtreams, to which the frequent rains and the daily melting of the ſnow on the mountains give riſe. Along the ſea-coaſt the ſoil is generally barren and ſandy, except by the banks of the rivers and ſtreams we have mentioned, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the valleys in the hilly country.

The cauſe of the want of rain in all the flat country of Peru, is difficult to be aſſigned; though the agents in it are not improbably the conſtant ſouth-weſt wind, that prevails there for the greateſt part of the year; and the immenſe height of the mountains, cold with a conſtant ſnow. The plain country between, refreſhed as it is on the one hand by the cool

winds,

winds, that blow without any variation from the frigid regions of the ſouth, and heated as uniformly by the direct rays of the equinoctial ſun, preſerves ſuch an equal temper, that the vapour once elevated, can hardly ever deſcend in rain: but in the mountainous part of the country, by the alternate contraction and dilatation of the air from the daily heats and ſucceeding colds, which the ſnows communicate in the abſence of the ſun, as well as from the unequal temper of the air which prevails in all hilly places, the rain falls very plentifully: the climate in the mountainous countries is extremely changeable, and the changes ſudden.

All along the coaſt of Peru, a current ſets ſtrongly to the north; further out to ſea, it paſſes with equal rapidity to the ſouth. This current probably moves eddywiſe; for having run as far as its moving cauſe impels it, it naturally paſſes back again where it has leaſt reſiſtance. The ignorance of this double current made the navigation in the South ſeas originally very uncertain and fatiguing; but now the courſe is, for thoſe who paſs from Chili to Peru, to keep in to the ſhore in their paſſage to Callao, and on their return to ſtand out a great many leagues to ſea, and take the ſouthern current homewards. The ſame method, but reverſed, is obſerved in the voyages between Panama, and all the other northern countries, and the ports of Peru.

There are ſeveral extenſive lakes in Peru, particularly that of Titicaca, formerly mentioned,

ſituated

ſituated in the valley of Callao, the middle of it being in 16 deg. 40 min. ſouth latitude, and in 68 deg. 20 min. of weſt longitude. This lake, like the adjacent ſea, is navigated by ſhips, and other veſſels, but is ſometimes ſubject to ſtorms; and the firſt ſhip which the Spaniards built upon it, was drove on ſhore by a tempeſt, and broken to pieces. This lake abounds with fiſh, and wild fowls; beſides, the towns and villages bordering upon the lake, are eſteemed the moſt agreeable dwellings in Peru. From this lake iſſues a large ſtream to the ſouthward, which forms another lake, called *Paria*, not much inferior to the former in its dimenſions, with ſeveral iſlands in it: and on the banks of theſe lakes are rich ſavannahs, or meadows, that feed great herds of cattle. There are alſo many lakes upon the mountains, which are the ſources of many large rivers.

Lakes and rivers, &c.

There is a great variety of ſprings in that part of the country which is remote from the ſea, but very few on the ſandy plains near the ſhore. Acoſta mentions one of a very extraordinary nature, near the quickſilver mines in Guancavitica, which, he ſays, thows out hot water, that, in running a little way, turns into ſtone, and forms a rock, ſoft, light, yet very durable, ſo as to ſerve the inhabitants for building their houſes. There are alſo at Cape St Helena, and ſeveral other places of Peru, fountains of liquid matter, called *coppey*, reſembling tar or pitch, and put to the ſame uſes by mariners,

for

for the preſervation of their ropes, planks, and tackle: this is not only aſſerted by Acoſta, but is alſo corroborated by Dampier and Funnel. At a farm near the city of Cuſco, is a fountain whoſe waters are naturally converted into ſalt, which would be very beneficial to the proprietor, if ſalt was not ſo plentiful in the country.

The rivers of South America generally riſe in the Andes, and particularly thoſe of Peru as well as thoſe of Chili. Some of theſe rivers bend their courſe to the eaſtward, and diſcharge their water into the North ſea, or Atlantic ocean; and others run in a weſterly direction, and fall into the South ſea. The former have an extenſive courſe, and ſome of them the largeſt rivers in the world: but the latter are rather torrents than rivers, made by the annual rains, which commonly fall on the mountains between May and September, and are perfectly dried up before January, the ſtreams being ſo ſhallow and rapid, that ſcarce any of them are navigable. The rivers which riſe to the eaſt of the Andes, will be deſcribed, when we come to treat of the countries through which they run.

There are about thirty rivers which riſe on the weſt ſide of the Andes, and, after paſſing through the empire of Peru, fall into the Pacific ocean.

As to the natural productions of Peru, they are rich, uſeful, and neceſſary, either as to vegetables, minerals, or animals: and the commodities for export may be reduced chiefly to theſe articles. 1. Gold, ſilver, Trading commodities.

ſilver, and precious ſtones. 2. Wine, oil, and brandy. 3. Vigonia wool. 4. Jeſuits bark. 5. Guinea or Jamaica pepper. 6. Quickſilver. Of the firſt of theſe articles we have already treated in our deſcription of New Spain, and there gave an account of the manner of procuring and purifying theſe metals, ſo ſhall not reſume it here; only we may obſerve, that the mines of gold in Peru are moſtly in the northern parts of it, not far diſtant from Lima, but thoſe of ſilver are moſtly in the ſouthern provinces. Gold and ſilver were ſo plentiful in Peru, in the 16th century, that de la Vega relates, there had been exported from thence to Spain every year, for twenty-five years ſucceſſively, the value of 13,000,000 of pieces of eight, or 2,340,000 l. Sterling; beſides what had paſſed without account. And although many old mines are exhauſted, yet they are daily opening new ones, ſo that theſe commodities are at preſent as plentiful as formerly. The towns ſhift with the mines, a rich mine is always the founder of a town in proportion to its produce; the town which it ſubſiſts, when the mine is exhauſted, diſappears.

Theſe mines belong to the perſon who firſt diſcovers them, who immediately preſents a petition to the magiſtrates, to have ſuch a piece of ground for his own, which is immediately granted; when they meaſure 80 Spaniſh yards in length, and 40 in breadth, for the diſcoverer, who chuſes what place he thinks fit, and does what he pleaſes with it. The ſame quantity is then

meaſured

meaſured for the King, and ſold to the beſt purchaſer: though if any other perſon is inclinable to work part of the mine himſelf, he bargains with the proprietor for a particular vein; when all that he digs out is his own property, after paying the royal duty, which is the twentieth part for gold, and a fifth for ſilver.

It is very ſuppoſable, that theſe metals generate in the earth, like all other inanimate things; and it is likewiſe certain, from the Spaniſh accounts, that gold and ſilver, as well as other metals, are continually growing, and forming themſelves in the bowels of their natural earths; which opinion is verified by experience in the mountains of Potoſi, where ſeveral mines have fallen in, and buried the workmen, with their tools, whoſe bones, and ſome pieces of wood, have been afterwards diſcovered, with veins of ſilver actually running through them.

The working of theſe mines has proved very deſtructive to the Indians; for the Spaniards oblige this unfortunate people to ſend annually a certain number from the villages of the country adjacent to the mines, who are compelled to work for a limited time, but afterwards may return. It is incredible to think how theſe mines (the moſt terrible ſcourge with which God could afflict the inhabitants) have contributed to depopulate this country. Worſe they are than ſword or peſtilence, equally fatal to their lives; and where thoſe eſcape, they are embittered by the circumſtance of an ignominious ſlavery, without any proſpect of end or mitiga-

tion. The effects of this ſervitude would be ſtill more fatal, if it were not for the uſe of an herb which the inhabitants call *coca*, to which they aſcribe the moſt extraordinary virtues, and which they conſtantly uſe. Its qualities ſeem to be of the opiate kind, and to have ſome reſemblance to thoſe of tobacco; for it produces a kind of ſtupid compoſure. It is an antidote againſt poiſons and poiſonous effluvia, and makes thoſe who uſe it ſubſiſt a long time without food. Though neceſſary to thoſe only who work in the mines, it is uſed for pleaſure by all the Indians, who chew it conſtantly, though it makes thoſe who uſe it, ſtink in a moſt offenſive manner. This herb is gathered by the Indians with many ſuperſtitious ceremonies, to which they attribute its virtues.

They make uſe of another preſervative, an infuſion of the herb paraguay; ſomething of the nature of tea. The conſumption of this in Peru by all ranks of people is prodigious. Above 18,000 hundred weight is annually brought into Chili and Peru, and is worth, when the duty is paid, not leſs than 80,000 pounds Sterling. The fineſt of this ſpecies of tea comes from the country of the Jeſuits in Paraguay.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

The wines and fruits of Peru. The wool. The lamas and vicunnas, ſheep of Peru. The bezoar ſtone found in the ſtomachs of the wild cattle. Jeſuits bark. Guinea pepper. Quickſilver mines. The ſurpriſing plenty of European cattle, &c. in Peru, and the manner of hunting and killing the wild cattle there.

THE ſouthern part of Peru which lies without the tropic of Capricorn, produces wine in great plenty, but not in perfection proportionable. The Spaniards diſlike and leave it to the Indians and negroes, chuſing rather, what may ſeem odd, to regale in the brandy of the ſame wine, which is likewiſe made and exported in large quantities, not only to all parts of Peru, but to Panama, and the ports of New Spain. The greateſt quantity is made near a place otherwiſe of no conſequence, called Moguaga; here it is ſaid they make annually of wine and brandy 100,000 jars, which M. Frezier reckons at 3,200,000 Paris pints; a vaſt quantity in a ſmall territory. Wine is made in a great many places beſides this, but of a goodneſs not ſuperior. Francis de Caravantes, a nobleman of Toledo, planted the firſt vines in Peru, which he imported from the Canaries; but the Indians preferred their own liquor, made of Indian corn, to any wine made of grapes. They water their vineyards in all parts

Wines.

of Peru, chiefly by turning rivulets through them, or letting in the water from ſome adjacent river or reſervoir; for the country is ſo hot and dry, that their vines will yield no grapes if they are not watered: therefore, when they would have them bear fruit, they water the vines, and have grapes at what time of the year they pleaſe.

Wheat and barley were firſt imported into Peru about the year 1540, which thrive here extremely well, and yield a great increaſe in many parts of this large kingdom.

Olives have been alſo carried over here, where they never proſper ſo well as other European plants; though they are found very agreeable to the ſoil of Chili; however, Peru abounds in ſugar canes, oranges, lemons, figs, cherries, apples, pears, quinces, nectarines, peaches, apricots, plumbs, and pomegranates; none of which were to be found here before the arrival of the Spaniards: but there were plenty of cocoa-nuts, cacao-nuts, pine-apples, guavas, plantains, and other fruits.

Fruits.

The Indians had neither lettuce, radiſhes, turnips, garlick, onions, beets, ſpinage, aſparagus, melons, cucumbers, peaſe, beans, or rice, of all which there are now greaty plenty; as there are alſo of roſes, jeſſamines, and many odoriferous flowers, that were never ſeen there till they were imported from Europe. But the Indians had ſeveral ſorts of herbs, roots, and flowers unknown to the Europeans, particularly the caſſavi root, which ſerved the natives of great

great part of North and South America, inſtead of bread. In the plains of Truxillo, there is a ſort of tree which bears twenty or thirty flowers, all of them different in form, and of ſeveral colours, hanging together like a bunch of grapes, which is called *flor del paradiſo*, or the flower of paradiſe.

Beſides many gums and drugs common to America, it produces a famous balſam, which is peculiar to this country, and from thence called *the balſam of Peru*. This proceeds from the trunk and branches of a little tree. There are three ſorts of this drug: the firſt is called *the balſam by inciſion*, and is a white liquor. The ſecond is called *the balſam of the ſhell*, which drops from the ends of the branches that are cut, where they hang ſmall flaſks to receive it, and thus it is drawn off till the tree will yield no more. But the third is a black balſam, which is made by boiling the bark, branches, and leaves of theſe little trees in water, and after they have boiled ſome time, the fat, or ſcum, that ſwims on the top, is taken off, being of a dark brown colour, and, like the others, called *balſam of Peru*. The laſt is generally uſed, as well in phyſic, as for perfumes; it ought to be viſcous, and of a turpentine conſiſtence, of a ſweet agreeable taſte, and having ſome reſemblance of ſtorax. The balſam of Peru.

Wool makes one of the moſt valuable commodities of the growth of this country; and is not more remarkable for its fine long ſtaple than for the ſingularity of Wool.

the

the animal which produces it. It is ſheared from a ſort of ſheep which they call *lamas* and *vicunnas*. The lamas have ſmall heads, reſembling, in ſome meaſure, both an horſe and a ſheep; their upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when they are enraged, they ſpit about five or ſix yards, againſt any thing that gives them offence, a ſort of invenomed juice, which, when it falls upon the ſkin, cauſes a red ſpot and great itching. The neck is long like that of a camel, the body reſembles that of a ſheep, but the legs are much longer in proportion. Their height is about four feet and a half, and they are ſo gentle and tractable that a child may govern them. This animal has a diſagreeable ſmell; but its fleſh, when young, is tender and delicate eating, being ſo wholeſome and inoffenſive, that it is preferred before chickens for the food of ſick perſons. This animal is extremely uſeful, not only for the wool, which is very long and fine, but as it is a beaſt of burden, ſtrong, patient, and kept at a very ſmall expenſe. Herrera obſerves, that 500 or 1000 of them go in a body, laden with any ſort of goods, attended only by a few Indians, every ſheep carrying one hundred weight, or at moſt a hundred and a quarter, but then it carries that weight a vaſt way without tiring; and they are ſo ſure-footed, that they will carry their burdens over rocks and precipices, when a man muſt travel on foot with difficulty. As ſoon as night approaches, the lama lies down, and no blows will force

The lamas.

force him to move one foot after the time he deſtines for his reſt and food; it is true, they eat but little, and very ſeldom drink; beſides, they never require ſhoeing, becauſe they are cloven-footed, and have a callous ſpungy matter at the bottom of their feet. The Spaniards alſo make uſe of them in the mines to carry the ore to the mills, and as ſoon as they are loaded, they go without any guide to the place where they uſe to be unloaded. It ſhould be obſerved, that they have a kind of ſpur above the foot, which makes them ſo ſure-footed among the rocks, becauſe they make uſe of it to hold in paths of danger.

The vicunna is an animal reſembling the lama, pretty much as the dromedary does the camel. He is ſmaller and ſwifter, with a far finer wool, but otherwiſe exactly like the lama in all reſpects. Beſides theſe, they have great numbers of wild ſheep, of a leſſer kind, which reſort to the mountainous and deſert parts of the country. The wool of theſe creatures is almoſt as fine as ſilk, of which the natives make ſeveral ſorts of ſtuffs for cloathing, and dye it of various colours that never change or fade. It is not eaſy to aſcertain what quantity of this wool is exported, manufactured or raw, out of Peru, either into New or Old Spain, but there is abundant reaſon to think that it is a very conſiderable article of their trade. The vicunnas.

There are ſeveral kinds of wild cattle in Peru, particularly on the Andes. Herrera and Acoſta relate,

relate, that the bezoar ſtone is found in the ſtomachs and bellies of moſt of theſe wild animals, there being ſometimes two, three, or four together, of different ſhapes, ſize, and colour, as black, dark, gray, white, and green, ſome looking as if they were gilded, and covered with ſeveral coats or ſkins; ſome as big as filberts, others of the ſize of walnuts, or pigeons eggs, many as large as hens eggs, and a few as big as oranges. All the beaſts that engender the bezoar ſtone chew the cud, and uſually feed among the rocks in the ſnow. It is found both in the male and female, who eat or drink of ſome paſture and waters that have been poiſoned by particular herbs and venomous reptiles; but there is one herb which the vicunnas, and other beaſts that engender this ſtone, run to by inſtinct, when they find themſelves poiſoned, and by that means expel the infection; which makes the Indians of opinion, that the ſtone in the ſtomach of theſe animals is compounded of this herb, from whence it derives its virtues againſt poiſons, and produces many other ſurpriſing effects. The ſtones are frequently formed in the ſtomach upon little pieces of wood, or ſhells which are found in the centre of the ball; but the Indians ſay, that the cattle ſent from Europe will not breed the bezoar, becauſe they never eat that extraordinary herb. Herrera obſerves, that the value of this ſtone conſiſts in its being of ſingular ſervice againſt infectious diſtempers, the ſpotted fever, and other diſeaſes; as alſo for the pleuriſy, ſtopping of blood,

The bezoar ſtone.

blood, and epilepſies. What the Indians relate of this matter ſeems to agree with what Pliny ſays of the mountain-goats, which fed upon poiſonous herbs, without ſuffering any damage. Beſides, it is well known that the bezoar ſtone is found intermixed with the dung of an animal of the goat-kind, called *pazan*, in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Golconda and Cananor, the buds of a certain ſhrub which the animal uſes to browſe being generally found in the middle of it, and is ſuppoſed to be the baſis on which this formation is made. A ſtone of one ounce in the Eaſt Indies is ſold for about five pounds Sterling, and one of four ounces for about 100 pounds ſame money; ſo that the value of the ſtone is augmented according to its magnitude, the price increaſing like that of a diamond: but the occidental bezoar is of a much inferior value to the oriental, being heavier, more brittle, of an impurer colour, and not ſo gloſſy. Bezoar is eaſily ſophiſticated, and the deceit as eaſily diſcovered. The methods for proving it are, 1*ſt*, To ſteep it three or four hours in lukewarm water, when, if the water is not tinged, and the bezoar has loſt none of its weight, it is pure. 2*dly*, To try it with a ſharp red-hot iron, when, if it enters the ſtone, and the heat makes it fry and ſhrivel, it is fictitious. 3*dly*, To rub it over a paper ſmeared with chalk or lime, when, if it leaves a yellow taint on the former, or a green on the latter, it is good and valuable.

The fourth great article of their trade is Je-

ſuits bark, ſo well known in medicine, as a ſpecific in intermitting diſorders, and the many other valuable purpoſes which experience daily finds it to anſwer. The tree which produces this valuable bark grows in ſeveral parts of Peru; but the beſt and fineſt is found on the mountains in the province of Quito, and about forty miles round the city of Loxa. The tree is tall, and about the thickneſs of a cherry-tree, tapering from the root upwards, but is deſtitute of branches till near the top, where they grow regular as if topped by art, and its leaves are round and indented. It bears a long reddiſh flower, from whence ariſes a kind of pod, in which is contained a kernel like an almond, clothed with a ſlight rind. The bark is blackiſh on the outſide, but ſometimes mixed with white ſpots. Emery obſerves, that there are two ſorts of this tree, the one cultivated, the other wild; but the former is much preferred to the latter; that the beſt bark is of the moſt lively colour, reſembling dark cinnamon. Bernard ſays, that the bark which comes from the trees at the bottom of the mountains is thickeſt, becauſe it receives moſt nouriſhment from the earth, being ſmooth, of a whitiſh yellow without, and a paliſh yellow within; that which comes from the trees at the top of the mountains, is abundantly more delicate; but the beſt kind grows in the middle of the mountains, where it has neither too much nor too little nouriſhment. There is alſo another kind of this bark which comes from

Jeſuits bark.

the

the mountains of Potoſi, that is more brown, bitter, and aromatic than the former, but much ſcarcer than any of the reſt.

According to the moſt authentic accounts, the Spaniards diſtinguiſh four ſorts of this precious bark; as, the caſcarilla colorada, or reddiſh bark; amarylla, or yellowiſh; creſpilla, or curling; and blanca, or whitiſh. The colorada and amarylla are reputed the beſt; the creſpilla is the produce of the ſame ſort of tree, only growing in a cold climate, which impairs the quality of the bark, and renders it whitiſh on the outſide, cinnamon-coloured within, and unfit for medicinal uſe; but the blanca is procured from another ſpecies of the tree, of a much larger trunk, and the leaves of a lighter green colour; the bark being a very thick ſpongeous ſubſtance, whitiſh on the outſide, and ſo tough as to require the force of an axe to ſlice it from the tree.

The ſeaſon for cutting the bark is in Auguſt, when the country is dry; and the cutters are Indians, provided each with a large knife and bag. When they have ſliced down the bark as high as they can reach, they faſten ſhort ſticks with withs to the tree, at proper diſtances, like the ſteps of a ladder, whereby they aſcend and ſlice to the very top, till the bag is full, when they carry it to the low country to dry in an adjacent hut, which is done by ſpreading it in the open air, and turning it frequently; but if it happens to be cut wet, they carry it imme-

diately to the low country, otherwiſe it loſes its colour, turns black, and rots.

After a tree has been thus barked, it requires eighteen or twenty years to grow again; and there is an opinion, that the better ſort of bark will ſoon be exhauſted, or at leaſt inacceſſible, either on account of its diſtance from any inhabited place, and the impenetrability of the woods where it grows, or by the want of Indians to cut it, whoſe race, through the cruelties of the Spaniards, is like to be totally extinct.

This bark was but little known in Europe till the year 1640. The Jeſuits of Rome firſt brought it into reputation in Spain and Italy in the year 1649; and in 1650, the Cardinal de Lago, of that order, introduced it into France, where it was at firſt ſold for its weight in gold, though at preſent it is ſold for about half a crown or three ſhillings Sterling *per* pound at Amſterdam. When reduced into a powder, it is called *the cardinal's powder* by foreigners, but more uſually *the Jeſuits powder*, or *pulvis patrum*. The Spaniards ſay, that the uſe of this bark was accidentally diſcovered by an Indian, who was in a fever, and drank the water of a lake wherein ſeveral of theſe trees were fallen, whereby he was cured; which incited ſome curious perſons to inquire into the occaſion, and thereby diſcovered this ineſtimable medicine. It however met with great oppoſition at firſt, when Chiflet and Plempius diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt it; but it is now almoſt univerſally allowed to be one of the beſt and greateſt

remedies

remedies within the whole province of medicine, eſpecially for the cure of intermitting fevers, for which purpoſe it is given in ſubſtance, tincture, or infuſion. The demand for this bark through all the kingdoms of Europe is very great, for which reaſon it makes a very conſiderable and valuable part of the cargo of the galleons.

Guinea pepper, Agi, or, as we call it, Cayenne pepper, is a very conſiderable article in the trade of this kingdom, as it is uſed all over Spaniſh America in almoſt every thing they eat. This is produced in the greateſt quantity in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export to the annual amount of 600,000 crowns. The diſtrict which produces this pepper in ſo great abundance is but ſmall, and naturally barren; its fertility in pepper, as well as in grain and fruits, is owing to the advantage of a ſpecies of extraordinary manure, brought from an iſland called Iquiqua. This is a ſort of yellowiſh earth, of a fœtid ſmell. It is generally thought to be the dung of birds, becauſe of the ſimilitude of the ſcent, and becauſe feathers have been found very deep in it, and that vaſt numbers of ſea-fowls appear upon that and all the adjacent coaſts. But, on the other hand, whether we look upon this ſubſtance as the dung of theſe ſea-fowls, or as a particular ſpecies of earth, it is almoſt equally difficult to conceive how the ſmall iſland of Iquiqua, not above two miles in circuit, could ſupply ſuch immenſe

Guinea pepper.

immenſe quantities, and yet after ſupplying upwards of twelve ſhips loads annually for a century together for the diſtant parts, and a vaſtly larger quantity for the neighbourhood, it cannot be obſerved that it is in the leaſt diminiſhed, or that the height of the iſland is at all leſſened.

Quickſilver mines.

Another part of the riches of Peru conſiſts in their quickſilver or mercury, of which they have ſeveral mines in the audience of Lima; particularly in the mountains of Oropeza, and Guancavilca, near the city of Guamanga. Mercury denotes a fluid mineral matter, perfectly reſembling ſilver in fuſion, and is found under three ſeveral forms: 1. In ruddy glebes or clods, called *cinnabar*. 2. In hard ſtony glebes; or a mineral ſubſtance, of a ſaffron and ſometimes a blackiſh colour. 3. It is alſo found pure; for, upon opening holes in the beds of ſtones, there ſometimes guſhes a vein, or ſtream of pure mercury: which is the beſt ſort for chymical preparations.

There are mines of Mercury in Hungary, Spain, and Italy, of all the above-mentioned kinds; but the Peruvian quickſilver is generally made from the cinnabar, which is a mineral ſtone, red, heavy, and brilliant; being eſteemed as marçaſite of quickſilver; or rather as quickſilver petrified, and fixed, by means of ſulphur and a ſubterraneous heat: for it can be chymically reduced, without much trouble or loſs, to the nature of mercury; and each pound

of

of good cinnabar will yield fourteen ounces of mercury.

The native Indians wrought theſe mines a conſiderable time before the Spaniards ſettled in their country, without underſtanding the nature or value of the mineral; for as the cinnabar yields a vermilion, they only ſought after this ſtone, which they called *limpi*; and uſed it like the ancient Romans, or modern Ethiopians, for painting their faces and bodies on feſtivals and rejoicing times; or elſe to beautify the images of their deities. Nor were theſe quickſilver mines diſcovered by the Spaniards, till the year 1567. When Henrique Garcias, a native of Portugal, happened to ſee a piece of ore, which the Indians called *limpi*, when he imagined that this muſt be the ſame as the European vermilion, which he knew was extracted out of the ſame ore with quickſilver; therefore he went to the mines to make the experiment, and found it to be according as he had conjectured. Upon this diſcovery, a great number of labourers were immediately employed to draw the quickſilver out of the mines in the neighbourhood of Guamanga, one of which is deſcribed by Acoſta to be a rock of hard ſtone, intermixed with quickſilver, extending about eighty yards in length, forty in breadth, and 140 in depth, being ſo capacious that 300 men might work in it together.

The refining or ſeparating of quickſilver from the ore, is done in the following manner. The ſtone, or hard ore wherein it is found, is beat

to

to powder, and put into the fire in earthen pots well luted and cloſed. When the ſtone is melted by the heat of the fire, the quickſilver ſeparates itſelf, and aſcends till it reach the top of the pot, where it congeals. Though if it was ſuffered to paſs out, without meeting any hard ſubſtance, it would aſcend till it became cold, and then congealing it would fall down again; but, as the ore is melted in earthen pots, it congeals at the top of them, which they unſtop, and draw out the metal when it is cold; for if there remains any fume or vapour, it endangers the lives of the workmen; who at leaſt will loſe their teeth, or the uſe of their limbs.

Quickſilver is the heavieſt of all metals, except gold, to which it is as 13,943 to 19,640, to lead as 13,943 to 11,356, and to ſilver as 13,943 to 10,691.

Mercury is ſold at Amſterdam for about one pound fourteen ſhillings, where it ſhould be choſen white, fluid, clean, quick, and of a beautiful water-colour; but if the colour is brown and leady, if it ſticks to the hands, or runs in minute globules, it is a ſign that it is not pure, that there is ſome mixture of lead, and conſequently that it is good for nothing.

The uſes of mercury are very conſiderable in refining gold and ſilver, in gilding, making looking-glaſſes, and eſpecially in medicine. But the Spaniards never refined their Peruvian ſilver with mercury, before the year 1571, when Ferdinandez de Valeſco came there from Mexico, and put them into this method: after which

they

they conveyed their quickſilver in ſkins to the port of Arica, by ſea, and from thence by land-carriage to the mines of Potoſi; where they extracted much greater quantities of ſilver from their ore by mercury, than they were capable of doing alone by fire: for theſe mines annually conſume about ſeven thouſand quintals * of mercury, in refining ſilver, excluſive of the conſumption of other mines. The men who work in the mines of this mineral, are yet more ſubject to diſeaſes than thoſe who toil in the others, and they make uſe of the ſame preſervatives of Paraguay tea and coca.

We do not find that any other part of the Spaniſh dominions in America produces this mineral, except this province. Mexico and Terra Firma are ſupplied with it from Old Spain, which is brought on the King's account only, except that ſome arrives from Peru in a contraband manner. In Peru likewiſe it is monopolized by the crown.

Before the Spaniards eſtabliſhed themſelves in this country, the Peruvians had no horſes, cows, aſſes, or other creatures of the European ſpecies; but theſe were afterwards carried over, and have multiplied amazingly. Horſes.

The firſt horſes and mares were carried over about the year 1495, from Andaluſia in Spain, to Cuba and Hiſpaniola; from whence they were tranſported to Mexico and Peru, where they

* A quintal is equal to one hundred pound weight.

were of great ſervice to the Spaniards in the conqueſts of theſe countries. They were at firſt uſually ſold for about 450 pounds Sterling a-piece; but this exorbitant price was ſoon abated, for the horſes multiplied here in a ſurpriſing manner, and were turned looſe into the fields, where they have proved a better race than their Spaniſh ſires, being broke, and made fit for ſervice at three years of age.

Cattle. Cows and oxen were alſo highly valued, on their firſt importation, being ſold for 200 crowns ahead; but, in 1554, the price was reduced to 100, and in 1590 they were ſo prodigiouſly increaſed as to be ſold for twenty or thirty ſhillings. They were afterwards ſuffered to run wild in the mountains, where they are hunted and killed for their hides, which make part of the cargoes for ſuch ſhips as ſail to Spain; but they are at preſent in ſuch plenty, that their fleſh is little valued either by the Spaniards or Indians.

Method of hunting the wild cattle. The Spaniards have a particular manner of hunting and hamſtringing the wild bulls and cows that are found in the foreſts and meadows; which, according to Dampier, is done as follows. The hockſer is a perſon who is conſtantly employed, and becomes very expert in this way of hunting. He is mounted on a good horſe, bred up to the ſport, who knows when to advance or retreat, without giving his rider any trouble to manage him. The hunter carries a pole about fifteen feet long, to which the hockſing-iron is

fixed

fixed by a ſocket, being made in the ſhape of a ſemicircle with a very ſharp edge, and the corners about ſix or ſeven inches aſunder. When the hockſer is mounted, he lays the pole over the head of his horſe, with the iron forward, and then rides after his game, which he ſtrikes juſt above the hock with his iron, and hamſtrings the beaſt; who immediately faces about, and makes at the huntſman with all his force; but the horſe is taught to wheel off to the left, and is too ſwift for the wounded animal. If the hamſtring is not quite cut aſunder by the ſtroke, the beaſt breaks it, by continually ſpringing out his leg, when he can go but on three legs, yet ſtill jumps forward to be revenged on his enemy. The huntſman then rides up ſoftly to him, and ſtrikes his iron into the knee of one of his forelegs, when the prey immediately tumbles down; upon which the hockſer diſmounts, and with a ſtrong ſharp-pointed knife quickly diſpatches him. The hunter immediately mounts again, and rides in purſuit of more game, leaving the ſkinners that follow him, to take off the hide, which is all they regard in Peru, where the wild beef is ſo plentiful. The Spaniards only hunt the bulls and old cows, leaving the young cattle to breed; whereby they always preſerve their ſtock entire.

All kinds of European animals are at preſent to be found in the greateſt plenty throughout all parts of Peru. The Indians had only one ſort of tame fowl before the arrival of the Spaniards, called *nuuma*, or the ſucker, which is

between the ſize of a gooſe and a duck: but the Spaniards have introduced all kinds of European poultry, which have increaſed in a wonderful manner; however, the Indians had a great variety of wild-fowl, and birds, both on land and on water; particularly eagles, hawks, parrots, herons, wild ducks, wild geeſe, ſwans, partridges, wood-pigeons, and turtle-doves, &c.

The South ſea, along the coaſt of Peru, is well repleniſhed with all manner of fiſh; and particularly a kind of pilchards, which are the principal ſubſiſtence of thoſe people who inhabit the places near the ſea. But the Peruvian rivers ſcarce afford any kind of fiſh, which is attributed to the rapidity of their courſe from the Andes, and the ſhallowneſs of their channels.

CHAP. IV.

An account of the three grand diviſions of Peru, with a deſcription of their cities and principal towns; their ſituation, trade, and number of inhabitants.

THis extenſive country is divided into three audiences or juriſdictions, which are, Quito; Lima, or Los Reyes; Los Charcas, or La Plata.

1. Quito is the moſt northerly province of Peru, and is bounded on the north by Popayan, on the eaſt by part of the country of the Amazons, on the ſouth by the province of Lima, and on the weſt by the South

Quito.

South ſea. It extends in length from north to ſouth about 420 miles, and from weſt to eaſt 360 in ſome places, in others more, but generally leſs. The Spaniards have alſo ſubdivided this audience into the three diſtricts of Quito Proper, Los Quixos, and Los Pacamores. The climate is immoderately hot, and very unwholeſome in many places. The ſoil is commonly ſandy and barren; but there are ſome ſpots of tolerable good ground, which are well cultivated. They have abundance of kine and ſheep, though there are few of the lamas or Peruvian ſheep, becauſe the inhabitants make them carry too heavy loads, and ſuffer them to periſh with too much labour. There is a great deal of ſaltpetre in ſeveral parts of this province where the ſoil is marſhy, which makes very good gunpowder; there is alſo excellent ſulphur, which is of a gold colour, and as clear as the ſaltpetre, being gathered out of the veins that are near the gold mines, of which there are ſeveral in the country, as well as of ſilver, quickſilver, and copper, beſides emeralds, and many kinds of medicinal drugs.

The principal cities and remarkable places in this province are,

1. Quito, which gives name to, and is the metropolis of the whole audience, is ſituated in a valley at the foot of very high mountains, in weſt longitude 77 deg. and 20 min. of ſouth latitude, about 720 miles north of Lima, and 120 eaſt of the ſea. It is a populous and opulent city, built after the Spa- The city of Quito.

niſh

niſh model, with four ſquares, a cathedral, two other churches, and ſeveral monaſteries, being the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the metropolitan of Lima, and has above 50,000 tributary Indians in his dioceſe, divided into eighty-ſeven diſtricts. There are about 3000 Spaniards in the city, and 30,000 Indians. The preſident and all the other officers of the audience reſide here, where wine, oil, ſpices, and European merchandiſes are firſt brought from the South ſea, by the river of Guiaquil, and then by land in carts. There is a grand manufacture here of cloth and ſerges, which make the cloathing of the common people all over Peru. The inhabitants alſo draw immenſe riches from the adjacent mountains, where there are many lavaderoes of gold. Beſides, the Indians have their fairs and markets, where they bring their fruits, cattle, cheeſe, cloths of cotton, wool, and flax, cables and leather, which they ſell by way of exchange, and not by any certain weight or meaſure. It is ſaid that the Indians who live near this city are more civilized, ingenious, and induſtrious than all the other nations of Peru. It is uſual for the inhabitants to quit this province, when they have accumulated ſufficient fortunes, and ſettle in other places, becauſe of the inclemency of the climate here.

Tacunga.

2. Tacunga is about twenty miles ſouth of Quito, and is a populous town, whoſe inhabitants weave woollen cloth, in which they carry on a conſiderable trade.

3. Baeza

3. Baeza is about fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Quito, being the principal town of the province called Quixos, and the reſidence of its governor. Baeza.

4. Zamora is 210 miles ſouth of Quito, and 120 eaſt of the South ſea. It is a fine city, elegantly built with ſtone and timber, having gold mines in its neighbourhood, with plenty of cattle, freſh water, fiſh, corn, herbs, ſalt, and honey. Zamora.

5. Loxa is fifty miles weſt of Zamora, ſituated in the pleaſant valley of Caxibamba, on the banks of the river Catumayo, in 4 deg. 15 min. of ſouth latitude; but it is of no conſequence as a place of trade. Loxa.

6. Paita is a ſea-port town, built on the ſand cloſe by the ſea, in a ſmall bay under a hill, having its ſituation in 80 deg. of weſt longitude, and 5 deg. 12 min. ſouth latitude, about 325 miles ſouth-weſt from Quito. It contains about 200 families, whoſe houſes are only ground-floors, the walls built of ſplit cane and mud, and the roofs thatched with leaves; but theſe ſlight buildings are ſufficient for a climate where rain is not ſeen in many years, and is always conſidered as a prodigy. The inhabitants are principally Indians and negro ſlaves, or at leaſt a mixed breed, the whites being very few. In the middle of the town is a ſquare, on one ſide of which is a fort mounted with eight cannon, and on the other ſide is the governor's houſe: but during the laſt war the fort had neither ditch nor outwork, being Paita.

ſurrounded

ſurrounded only with a plain brick wall, and the garriſon conſiſting only of one weak company; which made it fall an eaſy conqueſt to Commodore Anſon on the 11th of November 1741, who loſt only one man in the attack, obtained a great booty, which the Spaniards valued at a million and a half of dollars, or 268,750 pounds Sterling, and burnt the whole town to aſhes, except the two churches, which were at a diſtance, and where he had confined his priſoners.

The country about Paita is mountainous and barren, having neither wood nor water; but the port, though in reality little better than a bay, is eſteemed the beſt on that part of the coaſt, and is indeed a very ſecure and commodious harbour, where there is room enough for a fleet of ſhips, and good anchoring in any depth, from ſix to twenty fathom water, oppoſite to the town; upon which account it is frequented by all veſſels coming from the north, becauſe the ſhips from Acapulco, Sanſonnate, and Panama can touch no where elſe for refreſhments in their paſſage to Callao, and the length of theſe voyages renders it impoſſible to perform them without calling upon the coaſt for a ſupply of freſh water. Beſides, the port of Paita is the uſual place for diſembarking thoſe paſſengers that are bound to Lima from Acapulco or Panama; for, as it is 200 leagues from Paita to Callao, and as the wind is generally contrary, the paſſage by ſea is very tedious; but by land there is a tolerable good road

parallel

parallel to the coaſt, with many ſtations and villages for the accommodation of travellers.

7. Guiaquil is ſituated in 2 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, about 185 miles ſouth-weſt of Quito, and 565 north of Lima. Guiaquil.

It is built on both ſides of a navigable river of the ſame name, about twenty miles from the mouth of it, part of it lying on the aſcent of a ſteep hill, and the other part in low marſhy ground. It is divided into the old and new town, and conſiſts chiefly of one ſtreet, about one mile and a half in length. Here are five churches, ſeveral convents, and 500 houſes at leaſt, beſides houſes built of bamboe canes for the common people; the whole being defended by three forts, two of which are upon the ſides of the river, and the other upon the hill. The town is governed by a corregidor appointed by the King; and there is alſo a council for managing the affairs of the government, and determining cauſes of conſequence.

The mouth of the river Guiaquil is about two miles wide, is navigable fourteen leagues above the town for large veſſels, and the tide flows twenty leagues beyond; but the country on both ſides of it is low and marſhy, incumbered with ſhrubs and mangroves; however, there are ſeveral villages and farmhouſes on its banks, which ſupply the town with plenty of proviſions. There is a low iſland in the river about a mile long, and four miles below the town, which divides the ſtream into two very fair channels for ſhips to paſs up and down.

The river is almoſt a league over about this iſland, in which ſpacious place ſhips of the greateſt burden may ride afloat; but the beſt place for ſhips is neareſt to that part of the land where the town ſtands, which is ſeldom without ſhipping.

There is plenty of timber brought from the iſland of Gallo, and other places, to Guiaquil, on which account a great number of ſhips are built there for his Catholic Majeſty. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially in exporting timber, cocao, cotton, rice, ſalt, ſalt-fiſh, dried beef, hides, tallow, ſarſaparilla, and other drugs. They are ſupplied with flour from Truxillo, and other ſouthern parts; with woollen cloth and ſtrong bays from Quito, where they are manufactured. They receive wine, brandy, oil, olives, and ſugar, from Piſco, and other towns to the ſouthward; beſides, a market is daily held in boats and barklogs on the river, where all ſorts of proviſions are ſold very cheap.

The Spaniards have a conſiderable garriſon in Guiaquil, yet no town has ſuffered more from the depredations of the bucaneers. Dampier and his companions ſurpriſed it in 1685; but it was actually taken and plundered in 1687 by the French, who took the governor and 700 priſoners, from whom they exacted 46,958 pounds Sterling. And Capt. Rogers took it by ſtorm in 1709, when he plundered it, and obliged the Spaniards to pay 11,125 pounds Sterling

ling to ranſom the town and ſhips in the harbour.

There are a great many other towns and villages in this audience, where the Spaniards carry on a conſiderable trade, and where the inhabitants have valuable manufactures.

2. The audience of Lima, or the royal audience, is bounded on the north by that of Quito, on the eaſt by the Cordillera mountains, and on the ſouth by the audience of Los Charcas, being about 750 miles in length from north to ſouth; but its breadth is very unequal, on account of the bending of the coaſt, and becauſe it is pent in by the mountains in ſeveral places. The country abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, quickſilver, vermilion, and ſalt. There is plenty of cattle, fowl, fiſh, with all proviſions common to Europe, except butter, inſtead of which they always uſe lard. They have great quantities of oil, wine, and brandy, though not ſo good as in Europe. Though it never rains here, yet the want of this is ſupplied by refreſhing dews in the nocturnal ſeaſon; ſo that they have as good corn and fruits as in Europe, or anywhere elſe. In the valleys near the ſea the climate is very ſcorching, but tempered with breezes from the ſea and mountains; far up the country in the mountainous parts it is very rainy and like winter, when it is very dry weather, and like ſummer, in the plains. The audience of Lima.

The moſt remarkable cities and other places in this province are,

1. Lima, the capital of the audience, and the metropolis of all South America, is ſituated in a beautiful plain, on the banks of a river of the ſame name, in 12 deg. 6 min. of ſouth latitude, five miles eaſt from the port of Callao, which is its port. It was founded by Francis Pizarro the conqueror of Peru, on the 18th of January 1535, who called it *Cividad de los Reyes*, or, The city of the Kings, the plan of which is extremely well contrived, the ſtreets perfectly ſtraight, and of a convenient breadth. It extends in length about four miles, and two broad, ſurrounded with walls twenty feet high, which are ornamented with baſtions; but they cannot ſupport the weight of cannons, and could be of no defence againſt any European enemies.

The city of Lima.

Its diſtant appearance, from the multitude of lofty ſpires and cupolas, is extremely majeſtic; and when you enter it, you ſee the ſtreets laid out with the utmoſt regularity, cutting each other at equal diſtances, and at right angles: the houſes, on account of the equality of the climate, are ſlightly roofed, as they are built low, and of light materials, to avoid the conſequences of earthquakes, frequent and dreadful in this country; but they are elegantly plaſtered and painted on the outſide, ſo as to have all the appearance of free ſtone. The form of the city is triangular, the baſe or longeſt ſide extending along the banks of the river. It has in its whole circuit ſeven gates and three poſterns. What adds greatly to the beauty and

convenience

convenience of this city is, that moſt of the houſes have a garden, watered by canals drawn from the river, ſo that each family commands a little running ſtream for his own uſe, which, in a dry and hot country like this, is no ſmall matter of convenience and delight. Here is a grand walk by the river-ſide, of conſiderable length, conſiſting of five rows of fine orange-trees. To this the company reſorts in the evening, drawn in their coaches and calaſhes. Such is the opulence of this city, that, excluſive of coaches, there are kept in it upwards of 5000 of theſe carriages. The calaſh is drawn by a ſingle horſe or mule, and goes on a ſingle pair of wheels; yet ſometimes, by the gilding and other decorations, the price of one of them amounts to 1000 crowns.

In the midſt of the city is a grand ſquare, which may be juſtly accounted the fineſt in the world; on the eaſt ſide of it ſtands the cathedral; on the north the palace of the viceroy; on the weſt ſeveral elegant edifices; and on the ſouth are piazzas, with handſome ſhops of all ſorts. Lima has fifty-four churches, taking in the cathedral, the parochial, and conventual; thirteen monaſteries of men, (beſides ſix colleges of Jeſuits), one of which contains 700, and another 500 friars and ſervants; twelve nunneries, the principal of which has not leſs than 300 nuns; and twelve hoſpitals, beſides foundations for the portioning of poor girls. All the churches, both conventual and parochial, as alſo the chapels, are large, and partly conſtructed of

ſtone,

ſtone, and adorned with paintings and other ornaments of great value: particularly the cathedral, the churches of St Dominico, St Francis, St Auguſtine, the fathers of mercy, and that of the Jeſuits, are ſo ſplendidly adorned as to ſurpaſs deſcription, a full idea of which can only be obtained from the ſight of them. The altars, from their baſes to the borders of the paintings, are covered with maſſive ſilver wrought into various ornaments. The walls of the churches are alſo hung with velvet, or tapeſtry of equal value, adorned with gold and ſilver fringes; (all which in this country is remarkably dear), and on theſe are ſuſpended pieces of plate in various figures. If the eye be directed from the pillars, the walls, and the ceiling to the lower part of the church, it is equally dazzled with glittering objects preſenting themſelves on all ſides: among which are the candleſticks of maſſive gold and ſilver ſix or ſeven feet high, placed in two rows along the nave of the church; emboſſed tables of the ſame metal, ſupporting ſmaller candleſticks; and in the intervals between them, pedeſtals, on which ſtand the ſtatues of angels. In fine, the whole churches are covered with plate, or ſomething equal to it in value. So that divine ſervice in theſe churches is performed with a magnificence ſcarcely to be imagined.

If ſuch incredible riches are beſtowed on the body of the church, how can imagination itſelf form an idea of thoſe more immediately uſed in divine worſhip, ſuch as the ſacred veſſels, the chalices?

chalices? *&c.* In the the richneſs of which there is a ſort of emulation between the ſeveral churches. In theſe the gold is covered with diamonds, pearls, and gems, ſo as to dazzle the eyes of the ſpectator. The gold and ſilver ſtuffs for veſtments, and other ornaments, are always the richeſt of the kind that can poſſibly be procured.

The magnificence of the inhabitants of Lima on public ſolemnities is diſplayed, with a peculiar dignity: ſo that among all thoſe obſerved in America, the public entrance of the viceroy is the moſt ſplendid, and in which the amazing pomp of Lima is particularly exhibited. Nothing is then to be ſeen but rich coaches and calaſhes, laces, jewels, and ſplendid equipage, in which the nobility carry their emulation to an aſtoniſhing height.

They tell a very remarkable fact, that may help us to ſome idea of the vaſt wealth of this city. When their viceroy the Duke de la Palata made his public entry in 1682, they cauſed two of the principal ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver that had paid the fifth to the King; of between twelve and fifteen inches long, four or five in breadth, and two or three in thickneſs; the whole of which could not amount to leſs than ſixteen or ſeventeen millions Sterling.

Beſides the ceremony of this public entry, attended by the ſeveral bodies of the city, civil and eccleſiaſtic, in a very grand proceſſion, and very ſumptuous collations, *&c.* there are alſo

alſo other ſolemnities, ſome of which are annual; and on theſe occaſions the riches and liberalities of the inhabitants are no leſs conſpicuous, particularly on new-year's day, and on the twelfth day in the morning.

The tide of this vaſt wealth is fed from very copious ſources, this city being the grand magazine for almoſt all the plate of Peru, which is coined here; and for the large manufactures and natural products of that kingdom, for thoſe of Chili, and for all the luxuries and conveniencies brought from Europe and Aſia.

The number of Spaniards in this city, according to the loweſt computation, is ſaid to amount to 30,000, and the whole of the inhabitants of all caſts and colours do not fall ſhort of 70,000 ſouls.

All ranks of people here greatly affect fine cloaths, and dreſs in a moſt extravagant manner; and it may be ſaid, that the fineſt ſtuffs are more generally ſeen at Lima, than in any other place; vanity and oſtentation being under no reſtraint.

Lima is the uſual reſidence of the viceroy of Peru, who is as abſolute as a king, in the courts here, as alſo of Los Charcas, Quito, Chili, Panama, and Terra Firma, being governor and captain-general of all the kingdoms and provinces in South America. Although this government is only triennial, yet, at the expiration of that term, the ſovereign, if he pleaſes, may prolong it. This office is of ſuch importance, the viceroy enjoys all the privi-

leges

leges of royalty. He is abſolute in all affairs, whether political, military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue, having officers and tribunals under him, for executing the ſeveral branches of government; ſo that the grandeur of this poſt is in every particular equal to the title. For the ſafety of his perſon, and to maintain the dignity of his office, he has two bodies of guards, one of horſe, conſiſting of 160 private men, a captain and a lieutenant: their uniform is blue, turned up with red, and laced with ſilver. This troop conſiſts entirely of picked men, and all Spaniards. Theſe do duty at the principal gate of the palace; and when the viceroy goes abroad, he is attended with a piquet guard, conſiſting of eight of theſe troopers. The ſecond is that of the halberdiers, conſiſting of fifty men, who are likewiſe all Spaniards, dreſſed in blue uniform, and crimſon velvet waiſtcoats laced with gold. Theſe do duty in the rooms leading to the chamber of audience, and private apartments. They alſo attend the viceroy when he appears in public, or viſits the officers and the tribunals. The only officer of this body is a captain, whoſe poſt is reckoned very eminent. Beſides theſe there is another guard within the palace, conſiſting of 100 men, a captain, a lieutenant, and ſub-lieutenant, being a detachment from the garriſon of Callao. Theſe are occaſionally employed in executing the governor's orders, and the decrees of the tribunals, after they have received the ſanction of his aſſent.

The viceroy, beſides aſſiſting at the courts of juſtice, and the councils relating both to the finances and war, gives every day public audience to all ſorts of perſons; for which purpoſe there are in the palace three very grand and ſpacious rooms. In the firſt, which is adorned with the portraits of all the viceroys, he receives the Indians and other caſts; in the ſecond, he gives audience to the Spaniards; and in the third, where, under a rich canopy, are placed pictures of the King and Queen then reigning, he receives thoſe ladies who deſire to ſpeak to him in private, without being known.

It is reported, that the viceroy can raiſe 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horſe, throughout the whole extent of the kingdom; but it is certain, that he cannot arm the fifth of them. The garriſon of Lima conſiſts of the militia of the city; being fourteen companies of Spaniſh infantry, ſeven companies of the corporation of commerce, eight companies of Indians, and ſix companies of mulattoes, of 100 men each; with ten troops of Spaniſh horſe, of fifty men each, being 4000 in all.

The ſettled appointment of the viceroy is 40,000 pieces of eight, or 7166 pounds Sterling, beſides occaſional ſalaries, which amount to twice as much, and perquiſites which exceed all computation. For as often as he goes to Callao, he is entitled to 3000 pieces of eight for that little airing; he has 10,000 for every progreſs into more diſtant parts; he has the ſole diſpoſal of above a hundred great magiſtracies;

and,

and, in ſhort, the granting of all triennial employments, both civil and military, throughout the extent of his ample juriſdiction.

Is is impoſſible to conceive a more pleaſant and delightful climate, than that where Lima is ſituated. The temperature of the air here differs very widely from that of Carthagena, though in the ſame latitude with it, namely, the one in the northern, and the other in the ſouthern hemiſphere: for though that of Carthagena is hot to a degree of inconvenience, this of Lima is perfectly agreeable; and the difference of the four ſeaſons is ſenſible; all of them are moderate, and none of them troubleſome. The inhabitants enjoy all the advantages of the ſeaſons at once; for the products of all parts are brought here; ſo that the markets of Lima have all kinds of fruit the whole year round in full perfection. There are variety of pleaſant valleys in its neighbourhood, watered either naturally, or artificially, by living ſtreams, adorned with orange-groves, and whatever elſe can render them pleaſing or elegant. But with all theſe bleſſings and advantages, which greatly exceed moſt places in the world, it is ſubject to many inconveniencies: particularly, during the ſummer, the citizens are moſt terribly tormented with fleas and bugs, from which the utmoſt care is not ſufficient to free the inhabitants. Their prodigious increaſe is partly owing to the duſt of that dung with which the ſtreets are continually covered; and partly to the flatneſs of the roofs, where the ſame duſt, wafted thi-

ther by the winds, produces theſe troubleſome inſects, which are continually dropping through the crevices of the boards into the apartments; and by that means render it impoſſible for the inhabitants, notwithſtanding all their pains, to keep their houſes free from them. The moſquitos are likewiſe very troubleſome, but much leſs ſo than the former.

The next, and indeed a moſt dreadful circumſtance, is that of earthquakes, to which this country is ſo ſubject, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehenſions of being buried in the ruins of their houſes. Several deplorable inſtances of this kind have happened in this city, and lately proved the total deſtruction of its buildings. Theſe terrible concuſſions of nature are not regular, either with regard to their continuance or violence; but the interval between them is never of a length ſufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them.

Theſe earthquakes, though ſo ſudden, have their preſages. One of the principal of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth, ſome time before the ſhocks are felt: and this noiſe does not continue in the place where it was firſt produced; but ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterraneous parts. This is followed by diſmal howling of dogs, which ſeem to have the firſt perception of the approaching danger. On theſe portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houſes into the ſtreets, with ſuch precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; fear, and the urgency

of

of the danger, baniſhing at once all ſenſe of decency.

This ſudden concourſe is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their ſleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whoſe agonizing prayers to the ſaints increaſe the common fear and confuſion. The men are alſo too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror; ſo that the whole city exhibits one dreadful ſcene of conſternation and horror. Nor does this end with the ſhock, none venturing to return to their houſes, through fear of a repetition, which frequently demoliſhes thoſe buildings which had been weakened by the firſt.

The nature of this country is ſo adapted to earthquakes, that all ages have ſeen their terrible devaſtations.

Since the year 1582, there have happened about fifteen concuſſions, beſides that on the 28th of October 1746, at half an hour after ten at night, five hours and three quarters before the full of the moon; which began with ſuch violence, that, in little more than three minutes, the greateſt part, if not all the buildings, great and ſmall, in the whole city, were deſtroyed; burying under the ruins thoſe inhabitants who had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares, the only places of ſafety in thoſe terrible convulſions of nature. At length the dreadful effects of the firſt ſhock ceaſed, but the tranquillity was of ſhort duration: concuſſions returning ſo repeatedly, that the inhabi-

tants,

tants, according to the account ſent of it, computed 200 in the firſt twenty-four hours: and to the 24th of February the following year (1747), when the narrative was dated, no leſs than 450 ſhocks were obſerved; ſome of which, if leſs permanent, were equal to the firſt in violence.

The fort of Callao (about five miles weſt of Lima) at the very ſame hour tumbled into ruins. But what it ſuffered from the earthquake in its buildings, was inconſiderable, when compared with the terrible cataſtrophe which followed. For the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and ſuddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a ſea. This was not however totally performed by the firſt ſwelling of the waves. For the ſea retiring further, returned with ſtill greater impetuoſity, the ſtupendous water covering both the walls, and other buildings of the place; ſo that whatever had eſcaped the firſt, was now totally overwhelmed by thoſe terrible mountains of waves; and nothing remained, except a piece of the wall of the fort of Santa Cruz, as a memorial of this terrible devaſtation. Here were then twenty-three ſhips and veſſels, great and ſmall, in the harbour, of which nineteen were ſunk, and the other four carried by the force of the waters to a conſiderable diſtance up the country. Here the number of inhabitants exceeded 4000, of which only a few eſcaped. And it was computed

puted that the number of people who loſt their lives at Lima at the ſame time amounted to no leſs than 18,000. However, as the port of Callao is ſo excellent, and as it is that by which the trade of Lima wholly, and that of all Peru in a great meaſure, muſt be carried on, we cannot doubt, but that a new city is already built there; and that Lima is reſtored to its former luſtre; eſpecially as this latter is the centre of ſo vaſt a trade, and the ſeat of ſo great a government.

2. Callao, the harbour of Lima, extends along the coaſt, on a low flat point of land; being the largeſt, faireſt, and moſt ſecure road in the South ſea; for ſhips anchor in what depth of water they pleaſe, and without any apprehenſion of danger. The iſland of St Lawrence breaks the ſurges that come from the ſouth-weſt, being ſituated to the north-weſt of the little iſland of Callao, which lies before the town: but in the opening between theſe iſlands, there are ſome other ſmall iſles or rocks. The town contains 500 families, and was fortified in the reign of King Philip IV. with an incloſure flanked by ten baſtions on the land-ſide, as alſo by ſome redans and plain baſtions on the edge of the ſea, where there were four batteries to command the port and road: but at preſent the garriſon and fortifications are ſaid to be very inconſiderable. Callao.

All the conveniencies and neceſſaries for navigation are to be found in this port, particularly wooding and watering. It has an extenſive trade; here they import from Chili cordage, leather,

leather, tallow, hides, dried fiſh, and corn; from Chiloe cedar planks, woollen manufactures, particularly carpets; ſugars, cocoa, and naval ſtores from Guiaquil, and other places of Peru; as alſo the commodities of Mexico, and the Eaſt Indies from Acapulco.

Beſides the annual ſhips to Acapulco, there are two flotas which annually ſail from Callao, the one for Arica, and the other for Panama. The former ſails about the end of February, and receives at Arica the ſilver ſent from Potoſi, and returns towards the end of March. The latter ſails for Panama the beginning of May, with the wealth brought from Potoſi and Chili; as alſo with the King's revenue, and merchandiſes from all parts of Peru: and on the return of this fleet, laden with European commodities, they are diſpoſed of from hence, partly by ſea, and partly by land, to all the different places to which they are deſtined.

Cuſco. 3. Cuſco, anciently the capital of Peru, and the ſeat of the yncas, is ſituated in weſt longitude 71 deg. 30 ſec. and 13 deg. 15 min. of ſouth latitude about 360 miles to the eaſtward of Lima. It ſtands in an uneven country ſurrounded with mountains on every ſide, near the rivers of Yncay and Apurina; ſtill retaining ſome marks of its former magnificence, being ſuch as will always ſtrike intelligent ſtrangers with a juſt idea of the wiſdom, opulence, and potency of the ancient monarchs of the country; notwithſtanding of all the pains which the Spaniards have taken to pull down and

deſtroy

deſtroy the royal palaces, and magnificent temples, out of whoſe ruins they have built their own houſes.

De la Vega compares ancient Cuſco to ancient Rome: for, 1*ſt*, Like Rome, he obſerves, it was founded by its own kings; and, 2*dly*, Was the metropolis of many nations ſubjected to its empire. 3*dly*, It might be compared to Rome for the excellency of its laws; and, 4*thly*, For the admirable virtues and endowments of its citizens, who were remarkable for their political virtues, as well as military diſcipline. However, he ſays, it muſt be confeſſed, that Rome had one great advantage in her knowledge of letters, which rendered her fame immortal, whereas poor Cuſco had only memory and tradition to deliver its great actions to poſterity.

The city is now entirely built after the Spaniſh manner, being thrown into large ſquares with piazzas, from whence the principal ſtreets, which are very long and broad, run in direct lines, and theſe again are croſſed by other ſtreets at right angles. Beſides the cathedral, there are ſeveral churches, monaſteries, and nunneries, as alſo ſome hoſpitals. It contains about 40,000 inhabitants, three parts of which are Indians, who are very induſtrious and ingenious. Though little inſtructed in the art, a taſte for painting prevails, and ſome performances of the Indians of Cuſco have met with applauſe in Italy. An incredible quantity of pictures are painted here, which are diſperſed all over Peru and Chili. They have here likewiſe manufactures

of bays and cotton, and they work largely in leather, in moſt of the ways in which it is uſed.

The air of Cuſco is very freſh and healthy; the valleys about the city abound with corn and fruit, where the Spaniards have their gardens and country-ſeats.

Arequipa. 4. Arequipa is ſituated in the valley of Quilca, in 16 deg. 40 min. ſouth latitude, about 380 miles ſouth-eaſt of Lima, and 240 ſouth-weſt of Cuſco. Here the air is very temperate, and the town exceeding pleaſant, containing four or five hundred houſes; but it is very ill fortified, conſidering its importance; for the greateſt part of the ſilver from Los Charcas, Potoſi, and Porco, is brought here, to be ſent to Callao, and from thence to Panama. The adjacent country abounds in corn and wine, but there is a dreadful vulcano near the town, which frequently cauſes very terrible earthquakes. Frezier ſays, the town is ſeventy-two miles from the ſea, and that its port is called Quilca, which is little reſorted to, becauſe there is no ſecure anchorage.

Piſco. 5. Piſco, or Piſca, is a port-town, ſituated about a quarter of a league from the ſea, in 13 deg. 50 min. of ſouth latitude, about 123 miles ſouth of Lima. The whole town conſiſts of 300 families, among which are ſome whites, but the moſt of them are meſtizoes, mulattoes, and negroes, who are governed by a corregidor, and a council for the adminiſtration of juſtice. The road of Piſco is large

large enough to contain a royal navy, being open to the northward, from whence no dangerous winds blow in that latitude, and the ſhips are ſheltered from the uſual winds, which blow from the S. S. W. The neighbouring country is almoſt entirely planted with vines, of which excellent wine is made, to be ſent to Lima, and other places. All the ſhips that ſail from Callao for the northern or ſouthern coaſts take their proviſions of wine and brandy here, and ſome veſſels take their loading of them for Panama, which is afterwards ſent by land to Porto-Bello, and from thence to Carthagena.

6. Yca, Valverde, or the green vale, is about forty-one miles ſouth-weſt of Piſco, being a beautiful and opulent town, inhabited by about 500 Spaniards, who are governed by a lieutenant appointed by his Catholic Majeſty. The town has a port, about eighteen miles from it, called Porto Quemado, where the Spaniards carry the wine which is made in the adjacent valley, from whence it is tranſported to Lima, and other places. Yca.

7. Guamanca is an inland city, ſituated in 13 deg. of ſouth latitude, about 150 miles north-eaſt of Piſco, and 180 eaſt of Lima, being ſeated at the foot of a high mountain, in a very agreeable country, fruitful in all ſorts of proviſions. It is both large and populous, conſiſting of more than 10,000 inhabitants, and the number of the Indians who pay tribute in the diſtrict of this city are reckoned Guamanca.

to amount to 30,000. Here are three ſpacious churches, ſeveral convents, and a fine hoſpital, the houſes being built with ſtone, and covered with pantiles. The inhabitants carry on a very conſiderable trade, and have ſeveral valuable manufactures. The fields produce excellent corn, and the paſtures feed large herds of cattle, being watered by ſeveral brooks and rivulets.

Truxillo.

8. Truxillo is ſituated about ſix miles from the ſea, on the banks of a little river, in ſouth latitude 8 deg. 16 min. about 250 miles north-weſt from Lima. It is juſtly reckoned one of the principal cities in Peru, being not only at preſent the reſidence of the royal officers of this diſtrict, within which there are 50,000 tributary Indians, but alſo having formerly 500 houſes and four monaſteries, which have lately been on the decline; yet the town was ſo ſtrong when Dampier was there in 1684, that it deterred his companions from attacking it, after they had made the neceſſary preparations. The inhabitants have a great trade of flax, brandy, ſugar, wine, and marmalade, of which they export ſeveral ſhip-loads annually to ſupply the city of Panama. Guanchaco ſerves Truxillo for a port, being a ſmall fiſher-town, about ſix miles weſt of the other.

There are many other towns in this audience; as Caxamalca, Guanca Velica, Santa, or La Parilla, Camana, Cotambas, Naſca, Otoca, Tanuo, Campas, Comabos, Chancay, Caxatombo, and many others of leſs importance, which would be too tedious to deſcribe.

3. The

3. The audience of Los Charcas, or La Plata, is bounded by the audience of Lima on the north, by Paraguay on the eaſt, by Chili and Tucuman on the ſouth. It extends along the ſea-coaſt from Rio Tamma in 17 deg. 10 min. of ſouth latitude to the 25th deg. ſo that its length in a ſtraight line is 570 miles; but conſidering the windings of the coaſt, it may be reckoned above 600; and its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about 400, though much leſs in ſome places. The climate is indifferent, for it is exceſſive hot on the coaſt, whereas the interior parts of the country partake much of the other extreme: however, the ſoil is generally fruitful, being rendered ſo by art in the valleys, and made ſo by nature among the mountains; for the inland parts are ſufficiently watered, though there are few rivers upon the coaſt. The commodities of the country are ſilver and gold, as alſo pimento which grows upon the coaſt. The audience of Los Charcas.

The principal cities and moſt remarkable places in this province are,

1. La Plata, called alſo Chaquiſaca, is the capital of the province, and received its name from the ſilver mines in its neighbourhood, which were the firſt that were wrought by the Spaniards. It is ſituated in a fine plain on one of the ſources of the great river Plate, in 65 deg. 30 min. of weſt longitude, and 19 deg. 33 min. of ſouth latitude, being about 250 miles diſtant from the ſea, and 780 ſouth-eaſt of Lima. This city is the reſi- La Plata.

dence

dence of the governor of the province, and an archiepiſcopal ſee, erected by Pope Paul V. in 1605, to which the Biſhops of La Paz, St Miguel de Eſtero, St Cruz de la Sierra, Aſſumption in Paraguay, and La Trinidad de Buenos Ayres are ſuffragans. The houſes are well built, and the cathedral is very magnificent; beſides which there are fourteen churches and ſeveral convents; for the town is ſo large that it formerly contained 800 natural Spaniards, with 60,000 tributary natives under its juriſdiction; but it has been greatly diminiſhed in ſplendour ſince ſeveral of its mines have been abandoned, upon the diſcovery of thoſe of Potoſi.

Potoſi. 2. Potoſi takes its name from the mountain at the bottom of which it ſtands, being ſituated in 66 deg. 16 min. of weſt longitude, and in 20 deg. 26 min. of ſouth latitude, about ſixty miles diſtant from La Plata, in one of the moſt barren countries of America, where there are neither trees, graſs, nor ſhrubs to be found, but the richeſt ſilver mines that ever were diſcovered, which has brought ſuch multitudes of people there, that it is become one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in Peru; nor is it ill ſupplied with proviſions from all the adjacent countries within 100 miles of the place, where they bring all kinds of commodities and proviſions, which meet with a very beneficial market.

The town is about ſix miles in circumference, the buildings are beautiful, and the churches elegant. The Spaniſh inhabitants are ſaid to amount

amount to 10,000, and Frezier ſays, there are above 60,000 Indians; for the King of Spain obliges the neighbouring pariſhes to ſend a certain number of Indians yearly to Potoſi to work in the mines, where 1500 or 2000 of them are conſtantly employed, at the price of two rials, or ten pence halfpenny Sterling, a-day; but though the generality of them go to this ſervitude with the utmoſt reluctance, they ſoon forget their former habitations, and continue ſettled at Potoſi, which makes it ſo populous. The Spaniards and Creolians are poſſeſſed of immenſe riches; their churches dazzle the eyes of the ſpectator, by reaſon of the great quantities of gold and ſilver with which they are decorated. The cloaths of the citizens are of gold and ſilver ſtuffs; their kitchen-furniture all of ſilver, and the houſehold furniture of the meaneſt inhabitants ſumptuous to exceſs; but proviſions are very dear, eſpecially firing, which is entirely of charcoal, brought from a great diſtance, at leaſt upwards of 100 miles.

The mines of Porco were wrought in the time of the yncas, but they never knew thoſe of Potoſi, which were accidentally diſcovered by an Indian in 1545, and afterwards wrought by the Spaniards. The earth is of a dark red colour, and the mountain in the form of a cone, being three miles in circumference at the bottom, and three quarters of a mile at the top, as alſo three quarters of a mile in aſcent; but naturally dry, cold, and barren; for it is generally obſerved, that where the earth is enriched with

this

this kind of treaſure, there are no fruitful fields or verdant paſtures. The mines of Potoſi were rendered the more valuable, becauſe the miners were never prevented by water from carrying on their work, as frequently happens in other mines, though they have ſunk them to a great deep; theſe mines are the inheritance of ages; and, after having enriched the world for centuries, ſtill continue the inexhauſtible ſources of new treaſures. They are not however quite ſo valuable now as formerly; not ſo much from any failure of the vein, as from the immenſe depth to which they have purſued it, which, by the greater labour neceſſary, leſſens the profit on what it yields, in proportion as they deſcend; beſides, new mines are daily opened, which are worked at a leſs expenſe. The poor ſlaves who toil in theſe ſubterraneous paſſages, receive neither light nor heat from the ſun, which makes the air ſo cold and unwholeſome, that a perſon, at his firſt entrance into them, is ſeized with a diſorder reſembling the ſea-ſickneſs; the labourers work alternately night and day, which is equally the ſame to them, as they are conſtantly employed by candle-light, and entirely naked, to prevent them from concealing any of the treaſure. In Frezier's time there were upwards of 70,000 ſouls employed in theſe mines; but it is ſaid, their number is conſiderably abated ſince.

Santa Cruz de la Sierra.

3. Santa Cruz de la Sierra, or the holy croſs of the mountain, is the capital of a little province of the ſame name, to the

the eaſt, and under the juriſdiction of Los Charcas; ſituated at the foot of a mountain, on the banks of a rivulet called *Guapay*, in 18 deg. of ſouth latitude; the river flows from a rock, and runs through the town into a lake full of delicious fiſh. The houſes are of ſtone, covered with palm-trees: it is the ſea of a biſhop, where there is a cathedral. The Indians in the neighbourhood of this place were formerly ſo poor, that they uſed to clothe themſelves with oſtrich feathers; but the Spaniards have taught them the uſe of cotton, with which they now carry on a conſiderable trade.

4. Miſque is about twenty-five miles ſouth of Santa Cruz, being a ſmall town, but abounding in vineyards, whoſe wine is ſent to Potoſi. Miſque.

5. Porco is ſituated twenty-five miles weſt of Potoſi, and was remarkable for its ſilver mines, before thoſe of Potoſi were diſcovered; for the latter being richer, and not incommoded by water, drew all the undertakers and workmen from the former; but if thoſe of Potoſi were decayed or exhauſted, it is probable thoſe of Porco will be reſorted to again. Porco.

6. La Paz, the city of peace, is ſeated in a fruitful plain, near the ſpring-head of a river, called *Cajana*, being about 210 miles north-weſt of La Plata, and 125 eaſt from the ſea. The adjacent country is full of ſprings, fruit-trees, and fields of maize; with rich gold mines, and good ſalt pits; ha- La Paz.

ving alſo a temperate air, except from the beginning of December till March, when the continual rains occaſion fevers.

Arica. 7. Arica is ſituated in 70 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, and 18 deg. 27 min. ſouth latitude, being a port to Potoſi, though it is above 245 miles diſtant from it to the north-weſt. The ſhore is full of great ſtones, has little water and always rough: ſo that boats cannot ſet any thing aſhore, except in three little creeks, the beſt of which is at the foot of the headland. It was a ſtrong and populous town in 1680, when Dampier and his companions, commanded by Captain Watling, were repulſed with great loſs by the inhabitants: but Frezier, who was there in 1712, ſays, it has fallen to decay, and deſerves only the name of a village; for the earthquakes have depopulated the town, which now conſiſts only of about 150 families of blacks, mulattoes, and Indians, with a few whites. The houſes are but meanly built, and moſtly covered with mats. The pariſh-church is tolerably handſome; beſides, there are two monaſteries and an hoſpital.

Father Feuille obſerves, that formerly the ſilver was brought by land from Potoſi to Arica, where it was ſhipped off for Lima, which greatly contributed to the enrichment of Arica: but ſince Sir Francis Drake took three barks in this port, in one of which there were 1140 pounds weight of ſilver, the Spaniards for ſome time would not expoſe ſuch treaſures to be plundered; and therefore came to the reſolution of

ſending

ſending all their ſilver to Lima by land, though it is a very tedious and expenſive journey. However, they now continue to bring the ſilver by ſea; for which purpoſe the flota from Callao comes here annually in order to convey it to Lima and Panama.

The vale of Arica is about three miles wide next the ſea; about three miles up the vale, is the village of St Michael de Sapa, where they begin to cultivate the Agi, or Guinea pepper, which is ſown throughout all the higher part of the vale; and there are many farms, that have no other produce but this pepper; of which the Spaniards are ſo fond, that abundance of merchants come down every year, and carry all away that grows in the vales of Arica, Sama, Taena, Locumba, and others about thirty miles diſtant; from whence it is reckoned, that there are annually exported to the value of 107,500 pounds Sterling.

There are many other towns both on the coaſts, and in the interior parts of this country, but not of ſuch importance as to merit a particular deſcription. Though it is neceſſary to mention that there is a conſtant intercourſe between the mines and the port of Arica: for the conveniency of which, there are inns at every twelve miles; and it is computed that there are 200 perſons employed as carriers, or in the management of the inns; yet this is nothing in compariſon of the numbers employed in the ſame way, with reſpect to the inland commerce of the mines; for as this extends

through all South America, there are no leſs than 10,000 people concerned therein, who are continually in motion; and beſides all this, there is a communication, both by land and water, between Potoſi and Buenos Ayres, near the mouth of the river Plate, by which, if the crown of Spain thought fit, the ſilver might, with great eaſe, be brought into Europe.

CHAP. V.

A ſhort account of the ancient Peruvians; their government, cuſtoms, and religion.—Peru at preſent in the poſſeſſion of a different ſort of people; their characters. The ſlavery of the Indians. Honours paid to the deſcendents of the yncas, an Indian feſtival, &c.

THE Peruvians, like other Indians, were generally of a middle ſtature, and an olive complexion; but of a perfect copper colour near the equator; their hair, like that of all the other people between the tropics, was black; moſt of them had their heads ſhaved, and their beards pulled off with tweezers, from time to time.

Before the yncas ſubdued all the country, there was no kingdom of any conſequence among the Peruvians; they either lived abſolutely free, or under petty princes or lords, like the caziques of moſt part of America. The ſeveral nations were chiefly diſtinguiſhed by their head-dreſſes; for ſome wore whole pieces of

cotton

cotton linen wrapped about their heads, like turbans; others had only a ſingle piece of linen tied about their heads; ſome wore a kind of hats; others caps in the form of a ſugar-loaf; with ſeveral other different faſhions, which never altered, continuing the ſame in their reſpective nations and tribes, from generation to generation. But this is to be underſtood of the better ſort of people, for thoſe of an inferior rank went bare-headed. The head-dreſs cap, or turban, ſeems to have been granted to their chiefs, as a mark of diſtinction.

Blas Valera ſays of the Peruvians, that they exceeded moſt nations in the world for vivacity of wit, and ſolidity of judgment. If they had any thing that ſeemed ſhocking to the Europeans, it proceeded not from the want of parts, or endowments of mind; but from their being unpractiſed in the politer cuſtoms of Europe, and from their want of maſters to inſtruct them in the liberal ſciences: as a proof of this, thoſe Indians who had the advantage of ſuch inſtruction, after the arrival of the Spaniards, became greater proficients than the Spaniards themſelves, and would imitate any thing they ſaw ſo exactly, without being taught, that it ſurpriſed the European artiſts.

Though the Peruvians had no knowledge of letters, characters, or other ſort of writing, any more than the reſt of the American Indians; yet they had methods to preſerve their ancient hiſtories, and the maxims and rules relating to their government. For this purpoſe, they were

very

very exact in their traditions, which the youth received from their elders, and delivered to their children, as a thing ſacred, and religiouſly to be obſerved: beſides, they had a ſort of pictures to ſupply the want of writing; but the moſt wonderful and unintelligible things to the Spaniards were what the Indians called *quipos*, which conſiſted of abundance of twiſts, or threads put together, full of variety of knots, and diverſity of colours; every one of them ſignifying ſomething, ſo that a bunch of theſe threads ſerved them inſtead of a book, whereby they told all things in their hiſtory, knew their laws and ceremonies, and kept accounts to admiration.

Acoſta relates, that the yncas (which, in the Indian language, ſignifies King or Emperor) began to reign about three or four hundred years before the arrival of the Spaniards; but for a long time, their dominions did not extend above ſixteen or twenty miles round the city of Cuſco, where they had their original, and gradually ſtretched farther over all the country of Peru, from above Quito in the north, to the ſouthermoſt boundaries of Chili, being a tract of ground almoſt 3000 miles long. In breadth their kingdom extended from the South ſea on the weſt, to the great plains beyond the Andian mountains on the eaſt, where ſtood the Yncas Pacara, being a fortreſs erected to ſecure the frontiers on that ſide; but they went no farther there, becauſe of the great waters, moraſſes, lakes, and rivers, that were in the way to obſtruct

ſtruct their paſſage. Theſe yncas ſurpaſſed all the other nations of America in the art of government and politics; but much more in courage and martial diſcipline. In the firſt chapter of this part, we gave a ſhort account of the riſe and grandeur of theſe yncas, ſo ſhall not reſume it here; only obſerve, that they, by wiſe and prudent methods, ſoon civilized the greateſt part of the Peruvian empire, and reduced the wandering and uncivilized Indians to the happineſs of ſociety. They taught them how to cultivate their lands; enacted many excellent laws, and governed their ſubjects by juſtice and equity.

Garcillaſſo de la Vega obſerves, that the yncas divided their dominions into four parts, and all the people were ſo diſtributed, that there were officers to every ten, every fifty, every hundred, and every thouſand; who were to ſee that they wanted for nothing, and committed no offence; ſo that the ynca knew exactly the number of his ſubjects. In every village there were judges, who decided all controverſies without appeal; but the ynca himſelf determined all diſputes between provinces. The people paid the greateſt honour imaginable to their ſovereigns, who had ſecret emiſſaries in all parts, to give them intelligence of any miſdemeanor, which they cauſed to be ſeverely puniſhed.

Although the yncas were abſolute over the eſtates and perſons of their ſubjects, yet they did not oppreſs them. Special care was taken

that

that the fields ſhould be tilled and ſown, which was divided into three parts; the firſt belonged to the temples of the ſun, the next to the ynca, and the third to the perſon who cultivated the farm. The ynca exacted no other duty from his ſubjects than the ſowing, reaping, and carrying in of his corn to the granaries, with the cloaths and armour for his ſoldiers; for the Emperor received gold and ſilver from his ſubjects as a preſent, not as a duty; becauſe they had no other uſe of thoſe metals than to adorn their temples and palaces.

The yncas farther affirmed, that they only had the true religion, and knew how GOD ought to be worſhipped and ſerved; for which reaſon they were commiſſioned to inſtruct all their ſubjects; and accordingly they inſiſted ſo much on their rites and ceremonies, that they had above 400 places of worſhip in Cuſco; and as they extended their conqueſts, they introduced their religion.

The principal object of their adoration was Viracocha pachayacha ha hic, that is, the Creator of the world, and next to him the ſun, who, as well as all their other quaras, or idols, they ſaid had their virtue and being from GOD, with whom they interceded. Next to the ſun they worſhipped thunder, pretending that it was a man in heaven who had power over the rain, hail, thunder, and every thing in the region of the air, upon which account they offered him ſeveral ſorts of ſacrifices; but Viracocha, the ſun, and the thunder, were worſhipped in a

different

different manner from the other deities, which were the moon, the morning-ſtar, the Pleiades, the rainbow, the earth, and the ſea. The ſhepherds alſo worſhipped the ſtar called *lyra*, which they ſaid was a ſheep of different colours, that preſerved their cattle; and others adored a ſtar, which they imagined had charge over ſnakes. The forecited author ſays, that they gave or offered nothing to GOD, becauſe he is Lord of all; but they offered ſacrifices of ſheep, corn, garments, and other things to the ſun, for which purpoſe they had many prieſts, one of whom was the chief of the reſt. They conſecrated virgins to the ſun at eight years of age, like the Roman veſtals, of which there were about 1000 in the city of Cuſco, who never went abroad, but were employed in ſpinning for the King and Queen. They alſo made the bread uſed at ſacrifices, with the liquor called *aca*, for the uſe of the ynca and his family to drink on feſtivals; all the veſſels they uſed being either of ſilver or gold.

Coreal relates, that theſe virgins were to make a vow of chaſtity for life, and were kept in a convent, from whence they were not ſuffered to ſtir upon pain of death. They were guarded by prieſts appointed for that purpoſe only; and if any of theſe virgins proved pregnant, ſhe was puniſhed with death, unleſs ſhe would ſwear that ſhe owed her pregnancy to the ſacred influence of the ſun, which was an infallible device to ſave the mother, the child, and the prieſt, by whoſe miniſtry the ſun had

vouchſafed to operate on the veſtal. This divine pregnancy, ſays La Martiniere, which was aſcribed to the pretended intercourſe of the ſun with a virgin, was no doubt the ſource of many irregularities; and further adds, that by this means the ſun had a multitude of children.

Although the houſes of the Indians in general were very mean, built of mud, in the form of an arbour, covered with ſtraw on the mountains, and in the plains with ſedge; yet their public ſtructures were extraordinary great, where they very artificially laid ſtones of a ſurpriſing magnitude, which was done by perſeverance of labour and multitude of people; for there was one principal guaca or temple in every province, beſides ſome that were univerſal for all the dominions of the yncas, particularly two, which were much more magnificent than the reſt; the one being about twelve miles from Lima, and the other at Cuſco, called *the temple of Pachiamac*, where was an idol of the ſun all in pure gold, and richly ornamented with jewels.

Thus theſe yncas reigned for a long period of time over this extenſive empire, till the arrival of the Spaniards amongſt them in the fifteenth century, who ſoon reduced them and their ſubjects to a ſtate of abject ſlavery, under which they at preſent groan.

The number of inhabitants in this great kingdom, which hiſtorians repreſent by millions, is vaſtly diminiſhed ſince the conqueſt by the Spaniards, whoſe works at the mines have principally contributed towards this depopulation; beſides,

beſides, the cruelties of the corregidors and curates, have alſo induced many to go and join the neighbouring Indian nations that are unconquered, not being able any longer to endure the tyrannical dominion of the Spaniards. It is true, the common people of Peru were vaſſals and ſlaves to their yncas before the Spaniards conquered their country; but their princes treated them with the lenity of parents, whereas the Spaniards exerciſed upon them all the ſeverity of tyrants. However, ſome of the poor Indians were benefited by this alteration of government, at leaſt imagined themſelves to be ſo at firſt; for the Spaniards gave many of them their freedom, and made uſe of them in reducing the reſt of their countrymen to ſlavery; but when the conqueſt was completed, theſe Indians were not much better treated than the reſt, till the Kings of Spain, by their repeated edicts, compelled the adventurers and planters to treat the Indians as ſubjects, and not as ſlaves; ſince which time the Spaniards introduced great numbers of African ſlaves to work in the mines, and perform other laborious ſervices: beſides, the horſes, oxen, and mules, that have been tranſported to Peru, have made it leſs neceſſary to exact the ſame ſevere and laborious ſervices from the Indians as formerly, ſuch as carrying the baggage, and drawing the carriages of the Spaniards, which occaſioned the deſtruction of great multitudes of them.

Peru is now in the poſſeſſion of a very different ſet of people than it was at the time of

the Spaniſh conqueſts: for, beſides the native Indians, there are the deſcendents of many Europeans, as alſo of many African negroes of both ſexes, who have been tranſported there in great numbers; and whoſe mixed embraces have given riſe to another race, which is a compound of all three, having different features and different complexions from the people of any of the three parts of the world from whence they are derived.

Only thoſe who were born in Spain are called Spaniards. If any perſon is born of a Spaniſh father and mother in America, he is called a *Creolian*, as are alſo the children of the Peruvian negroes; and it is ſaid, that this term of Creole came firſt from the negroes, who gave this denomination to their children that were born there, as a diſtinction from the native Africans. The children procreated between a Spaniard and an Indian, or between a Spaniard and a negro are called *meſtizoes*; thoſe born of a negro and an Indian are called *mulattoes*, or *molatas*; and the children of theſe mulattoes are called *cholo* by the Spaniards, which ſignifies a dog of a mongrel breed, nor are they held in much better eſtimation.

The manners of the Spaniards and Creolians in Peru reſemble, with little difference, thoſe of the Spaniards and Creolians of Mexico. Diviſion is the great inſtrument in which the Spaniards truſt for the preſervation of their colonies. The native Spaniard has all the lucrative offices, civil, eccleſiaſtic, and military. He deſpiſes

ſpiſes the Creolian; the Creolian hates and envies him: both contemn and abuſe the Indians, who, on their ſide, are not inſenſible of the indignities they ſuffer. The blacks are encouraged to trample on the Indians, and to conſider their intereſts as altogether oppoſite; whilſt the Indians, in their nominal freedom, look with an envious diſdain upon the ſlavery of the negroes.

Frezier reports, that, notwithſtanding the wars, and the deſtruction of the Indians by the Spaniards, there is ſtill a family of the race of the yncas living at Lima, whoſe chief is acknowledged by the King of Spain as a deſcendent of the Emperors of Peru, and as ſuch his Catholic Majeſty gives him the title of *couſin*, ordering the viceroy, at his entering into Lima, to pay him a ſort of public homage. Thus, at every change of a viceroy, they externally honour the memory of the ſovereignty of that Emperor, whom they have unjuſtly deprived of his dominions. What is ſtill more extraordinary, the Spaniards ſuffer the Indians to celebrate an annual feſtival, in which plays are repreſented, commemorating the overthrow of their own ſtate. Theſe are acted with all the horrid and aggravating circumſtances which attended this event, and the people are at that time ſo enraged, that the Spaniards find it dangerous to go abroad. In the city of Lima there is annually celebrated a feſtival of this kind with a grand proceſſion, wherein they carry, in a ſort of triumph, the remaining deſcendent of the

yncas

yncas of Peru, and his wife, who, at that time, receive all imaginable honours in the moſt melancholy pomp, from a race bowed down with the ſenſe of the common bondage of prince and people. This throws the moſt affecting gloom over the feſtival, that renews the image of their former freedom.

The religion of all Peru appears to be the ſame, from what nation or mixture of nations ſoever the preſent inhabitants are deſcended; which is owing to the inquiſition that reigns here with greater terror than in any other part of the world, whereby both Indians and negroes are compelled to profeſs themſelves Catholics.

As to the characters of the magiſtrates and clergy here, and of the government, both civil and eccleſiaſtic, they are much the ſame with thoſe of New Spain, of which an account was given when treating of that kingdom.

CHAP. VI.

A deſcription of the principal iſlands upon the coaſt of Peru; as alſo of the Gallapagos, and the iſlands of Solomon.

THere are ſeveral iſlands upon the coaſt of Peru; but the moſt remarkable are thoſe of Lobos, Puna, and Plata.

The iſlands of Lobos.

1. The iſles of Lobos, or Seals, according to Dampier, are two little iſlands, each of them about a mile round, and of an indifferent height, ſituated in 6 deg. 20 min.

of

of ſouth latitude, being about 135 miles north-weſt of Truxillo. The ſame author diſtinguiſhes them by the names of Lobos de la mer, and Lobos de la terra, between which, he ſays, there is a ſmall channel, fit for boats only, and that there are ſeveral rocks lying on the north ſide of the iſlands, a little way from the ſhore. There is a ſmall cove or ſandy bay, ſheltered from the winds, at the weſt end of the moſt eaſterly iſland, where ſhips may careen, but the reſt of the coaſt is rocky and dangerous. Within land they are both of them rocky, and partly ſandy, being barren, without freſh water, tree, ſhrubs, graſs, herbs, or any land-animals, except fowls, of which there are great multitudes, particularly boobies and penguins; beſides, great numbers of ſeals and ſea-lions come aſhore upon both iſlands. He further adds, that there is good riding between the eaſtermoſt iſland and the rocks, in ten, twelve, or fourteen fathom; for the wind here commonly blows from the ſouth, and the iſland lying eaſt and weſt, ſhelters that road.

2. The iſland of Puna is ſituated in the bay of Guiaquil in 3 deg. of ſouth latitude; it is flat and low, ſtretching eaſt and weſt about thirteen or fourteen leagues; and was formerly very populous, but now there is only one town upon the iſland, which is alſo called *Puna*, lying on the ſouth ſide, cloſe by the ſea, about ſeven leagues from Guiaquil, and the ſame diſtance from Punta Arena, or Sandy Point,

The iſland of Puna, weſt longitude 79 deg. ſouth latitude 3 deg.

Point, which is the moſt weſterly part of the iſland. The town of Puna is chiefly inhabited by Indians, who are all ſeamen, and are the only pilots in theſe ſeas, particularly for the river of Guiaquil. The ſhips bound for this river anchor at Punta Arena, and wait for a pilot; becauſe the entrance is very dangerous for ſtrangers. The tide runs remarkably ſtrong all about the iſland, but ſo many different ways, on account of creeks and rivers, which run into the ſea near it, that it caſts up many dangerous ſhoals on all ſides of it. The beſt place for anchoring, is juſt before the middle of the town, where there is five fathom water within a cable's length of the ſhore, and good ſoft deep ooze where ſhips may careen or hale aſhore.

3. The iſland of Plata, or Plate, lies in 1 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude, 79 deg. of weſt longitude, about eight or ten miles from the continent. The iſland received its name from the Spaniards, after Sir Francis Drake took the Cacafogo, and ſhip chiefly laden with plate, which he brought here, and divided with his men. It is about four miles long, and one and one half broad; being ſurrounded with high ſteep clifts, except at one place on the eaſt ſide. The ſoil is generally ſo dry and ſandy, that the trees it produces, which are of three or four ſorts, unknown to Europeans, are ſmall bodied, low, and overgrown with long moſs; however, there is good graſs in ſome places; but there is no water on the iſland, except at one place, on the eaſt ſide, cloſe by

The iſland of Plata.

the

the ſea, where it glides ſlowly down from the rocks, and may be received into veſſels.

The anchoring-place is on the eaſt ſide, near the middle of the iſland, cloſe by the ſhore, within two cables length of the ſandy bay; having eighteen or twenty fathom of water, and a good faſt oozy ground, and ſmooth water. There is good landing on the ſandy bay, oppoſite to the anchoring-place, from whence there is a paſſage into the iſland, and at no place beſides.

There are alſo the iſlands of Salango, and St Claro, a few leagues to the ſouth of Plata. The iſland of St Roch, in 7 deg. 20 min. ſouth latitude; the iſle St Gallant near Piſco; Gouanne in 20 deg. 40 min. ſouth latitude; and ſome others upon the coaſt of Peru, which require no particular deſcription: but there are the Gallapagos, and the iſlands of Solomon, in the Pacific ocean weſtward of Peru, that are worthy of obſervation.

1. The Gallapagos, or Gallapago iſlands, that is, of tortoiſes, are a cluſter of ſmall uninhabited iſlands, lying under, and on both ſides of the equator, in weſt longitude 90; being about 110 leagues from the northern part of Peru, almoſt oppoſite to the town of Quito. The Spaniards, who firſt diſcovered them, have never ſent any colonies thither, yet they report them to be very numerous, ſtretching north-weſt from the line, as far as five degrees north: but Dampier ſays, he only ſaw about fourteen or fifteen; ſome of The Gallapago iſlands.

which were about eight leagues long, and three or four broad; being pretty high and flat on the top. Four or five of the moſt eaſterly iſlands are rocky, hilly, and barren, producing neither trees nor graſs, except by the ſea-ſide, and a few dildo trees within land, which are green prickly ſhrubs, that grow about eight or ten feet high, without leaf or fruit, and not ſo much as fit to burn: ſome other of theſe iſlands are moſtly plain, and low, the land more fertile, and producing trees of ſeveral ſorts, unknown to Europeans; particularly ſome of the moſt weſterly iſlands, which are nine or ten leagues long, and ſix or ſeven broad; having a deep and black mould, that produces trees of great tall bodies, eſpecially mamee-trees, which grow here in extenſive groves. The mamee is a large, tall, and ſtraight-bodied tree, without knots or limbs, for ſixty or ſeventy feet and upwards. The head ſpreads abroad in many ſmall limbs, which grow pretty thick and cloſe together. In ſome of theſe larger iſlands, there are pleaſant rivers; and there are brooks and rivulets of good water in ſeveral of the leſſer ones. The Spaniards, upon the firſt diſcovery of theſe iſlands, found multitudes of guanos and tortoiſes, or land-turtles; and Dampier ſays, he believes no place in the world is ſo plentifully ſtored with them. The guano is an animal like the lizard, but much larger, and of the bigneſs of a man's leg, with a tail tapering to the end, which is very ſmall. They lay eggs, as moſt of theſe amphibious animals do, and are very

very good to eat. Their fleſh is much eſteemed by the privateers, who commonly dreſs them for their ſick men, and they make very good broth; they are of divers colours, and they all live as well in the water as on land. The Gallapago guanos are very large and fat, and ſo tame, that one may knock down twenty of them in an hour's time with a club. The land-turtles are here very numerous; they are extraordinary large and fat, and eat as delicate as the fleſh of a pullet. One of the largeſt among theſe will weigh 150 or 200 weight; and ſome of them are two feet, and two feet and a half over the belly. Here is great plenty of turtle-doves, and ſo tame, that four or five dozen of them may be killed in a forenoon with a ſtick; they are ſomething leſs than a pigeon, are commonly fat, and very good meat.

Between theſe iſlands are good wide channels fit for ſhips to paſs, and ſhoal water in ſome places, producing plenty of turtle-graſs; ſo that theſe iſlands are plentifully ſtored with ſea-turtles of that ſort called the *green turtle*. There are four kinds of ſea-turtle, *viz.* the trunk-turtle, the loggerhead, the hawkſbill, and the green turtle; the latter is ſo called, becauſe its ſhell is greener than any other, and one of them will weigh between two and three hundred pound weight. Theſe, and all other turtles, lay their eggs in the ſand, between May and July, and this three times in a ſeaſon, and at each time eighty or ninety eggs, which are as big as thoſe of a hen, but very round, and on-

ly covered with a white tough ſkin. When the ſhe turtle finds a place above high-water mark fit for her purpoſe, ſhe makes a hole with her fins in the ſand, where ſhe lays her eggs, then covers them two feet deep with the ſame ſand, when ſhe returns to the ſea again. The air of the Gallapagos is temperate enough, conſidering the climate. Here is conſtantly a freſh ſea-breeze all day, and cooling refreſhing winds in the night: the heat, therefore, is not ſo violent here as in moſt places near the equator. The rainy ſeaſon is in November, December, and January; in which months there is often very hard tempeſtuous weather, mixed with a deal of thunder and lightning.

The iſlands of Solomon.

2. The iſlands of Solomon are a cluſter of iſlands, ſituated in the Pacific ocean, between 130 and 140 deg. of weſt longitude, and between 7 and 12 deg. of ſouth latitude; they were originally diſcovered by Alvaro de Mendoza, under the orders of the licentiate Lopez Garcia de Caſtro, in 1567, which was then eſteemed a very important matter. However, as the Spaniards are ſlow in their motions, and being frightened, for ſome time, on account of the expedition made by Sir Francis Drake, who actually viſited the South ſeas in 1578, the further diſcovery was diſcontinued. As ſoon as the Spaniards were recovered from this fright, and were in a condition of thinking of ſuch matters again, the project of diſcovering the iſlands of Solomon was revived, but was again defeated, by the ar-

rival

rival of Admiral Cavendiſh in the South ſeas, in 1586. However, in 1595, Don Alvaro de Miranda was ſent with four ſhips upon this diſcovery; but, though they could not find the iſlands of Solomon, they found other iſlands near them, of equal or greater value, where they behaved ſo ill, that they compelled the natives to have recourſe to arms, by whom they were driven out, and obliged to fly for ſhelter to the Philippines. Ferdinand de Guiros laboured hard to get this project reſumed in 1610, but the Spaniards have not applied themſelves to it: ſo that it is probable the diſcovery of theſe iſlands, and of the ſouthern unknown continent, may be reſerved for ſome other nation. Theſe iſlands are reported to be worth the ſeeking and poſſeſſing, as being large and pleaſant, with excellent ports, and great quantities of ſilver; yet, in the ſpace of 188 years, theſe valuable countries have ſcarce been ſeen, and never ſettled or conquered.

CHAP. VII.

The diſcovery and invaſion of Chili by Don Diego de Almagro; his expedition, and death. The ſecond expedition under Don Pedro Baldivia; the ſettlements which he eſtabliſhed, his war with the Indians, and death. Velagra continued the war againſt Caupolican the Indian general, but with little ſucceſs. The war undertaken by Don Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza; he defeats the Indians, and puts their general Caupolican

lican to death. How the Dutch and Engliſh attempted to ſettle in Chili. Peace concluded between the Spaniards and Chileſians. The number of inhabitants in Chili, with a ſhort account of the Indians.

THis charming country of Chili was firſt diſcovered by Don Diego de Almagro, who began the conqueſt of it about the year 1535. The firſt account that the Spaniards received of this country, was from the Peruvians, who ſubdued the northern part of that kingdom, in the reign of their tenth ynca; but afterwards met with ſuch a powerful oppoſition from the confederated Chileſians, that the yncas determined to make the river Maule the utmoſt bounds of their empire; and accordingly fortified the banks of it againſt the invaſions of the barbarians, as they called the Chileſians. Almagro obtained a grant from his Catholic Majeſty, of all the country between Las Chincas in Peru, and the ſtreights of Magellan, which included half of Peru and all Chili, being then called by the Spaniards *the new kingdom of Toledo*. This Almagro was one of the three adventurers with Pizarro and Lucques, who undertook the conqueſt of Peru, after Peter de Anas had abandoned his enterpriſe in 1525. When Almagro received the above-mentioned grant, he inſiſted that the government of Cuſco, the ancient capital of Peru, was under his juriſdiction, and ſet out accordingly to take poſſeſſion of it; however, he deſiſted from that attempt,

and

and turned his arms towards Chili; for which purpoſe he amaſſed a prodigious treaſure, and diſtributed it among his men, to buy horſes and arms, promiſing that what they conquered ſhould be equally divided among them.

Almagro had an army of 200 horſe, 300 Spaniſh foot, and a great number of Indians, who accompanied one of their princes, beſides a multitude of ſlaves, with which he entered Chili, but met with a brave oppoſition from the natives; who, at firſt, were much intimidated at the Spaniſh horſes, though, at laſt, after they had killed ſome of them in an engagement, they took a ſolemn oath by the great ſun, either to die or kill them all. The Spaniards being obliged to march through a deſert country, ſuffered great diſtreſs by want of proviſions; but their affliction was ſo much increaſed in paſſing the Andes, that they loſt 150 men, and thirty horſes, beſides 10,000 Indians, who came from Peru. However Almagro deſcended into the plain of Copiapo, where he found an opportunity of rendering himſelf popular among the Chileſians, by putting an uſurper to death, who had deprived a young prince of his government, and oppreſſed his ſubjects. He then proceeded to the Promocas, a nation who inhabited the banks of the river Maule, where they bravely oppoſed him, and killed abundance of his men; but were obliged to give way at laſt to his horſe and artillery; ſo that, in all probability, he would have ſoon conquered the whole kingdom, if he had not re-

turned

turned to Peru, in 1537, to take poſſeſſion of Cuſco, by virtue of a royal patent, which he received by a meſſenger ſent on purpoſe. This put a ſtop to the Spaniſh conqueſts in Chili for that time, and proved fatal to Almagro, who took Cuſco by force; but was afterwards defeated, and taken priſoner by Pizarro, who put him to death as a criminal.

The next Spaniſh general who entered Chili, was Don Pedro Baldivia, or Valdivia: he had borne arms in Italy and Peru, with reputation; and was therefore thought a fit perſon to finiſh this important conqueſt: for which purpoſe he obtained a permiſſion in 1539 from Pizarro and the viceroy of Peru. He ſpent a whole year in making preparations for this expedition, and began it in 1540, with a conſiderable army of Spaniards and Indians, who, after great difficulties, arrived in the valley of Copiapo. The firſt oppoſition he met with, was at Quillota, where the Indians ſkirmiſhed with him conſtantly, but were unable to retard his progreſs; ſo that he advanced as far as St Jago, where he erected a fort, and founded the town of that name, as a place of defence againſt the Indians, who killed ſo many of his men, that they talked of returning again to Peru; but Baldivia eaſily compoſed the mutiny, by putting his men in hopes of acquiring immenſe ſtores of gold, which they ſoon diſcovered at the mines of Quillota, where he erected another fort to protect his workmen. He then ſent for more aſſiſtance from Peru, which as ſoon as he received,

ved, he purſued his conqueſts further, particularly againſt the Promocas, with whom he had ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, which obliged him to ſend for further aſſiſtance from Peru.

Baldivia in the mean time founded the city of Coquimbo, and fortified it for the ſecurity of his men; but, inſtead of receiving any ſupplies from Peru, his aſſiſtance was deſired there by the governor, againſt whom one of the brothers of Pizarro had revolted.

During the abſence of Baldivia from Chili, he left Francis de Velagra for his lieutenant, who had a miſunderſtanding with Pedro Sanchez de Hoz, to whom his Catholic Majeſty had granted the government of the farther part of Peru and Chili; but Velagra made him priſoner, and beheaded him. It is uncertain whether this was done by Baldivia's orders or not; however, he appeared well ſatisfied with his death, becauſe this rival had great pretenſions to moſt of his conqueſts, and conſidered Baldivia only as an uſurper.

While the Spaniards were thus engaged in civil diſſenſions, both in Peru and Chili, the Chileſians made their advantage of them, by ſurpriſing the Spaniſh garriſons of Copiapo and Coquimbo, putting them to the ſword, and demoliſhing both the towns. Baldivia, however, returning from Peru with a good army, ſoon retrieved his affairs, by driving the Indians from the valleys of Copiapo and Coquimbo again, and rebuilt the towns which they had deſtroyed.

He next marched againſt the Promocas, and

founded the city of Conception in 1550, where he alſo erected a fort, and ſent out detachments to make further diſcoveries. He then proceeded ſouthward with the main body of his army, and ſubdued ſuch of the natives as made any oppoſition, and in the year 1551 founded the cities of Impèrial, Baldivia, and Villa Rica, in order to keep the Indians in obedience.

Baldivia loſt many of his men in this expedition, and underwent great hardſhips and fatigues; and after building ſeveral forts, which he garriſoned to preſerve his new conqueſts, he applied himſelf to the working of the gold mines, in hopes of accumulating great treaſure, which he intended to carry over to Spain, not doubting, by thus adding the weight of his gold to his merit, he ſhould eaſily obtain ſuch titles of honour, as that court had beſtowed upon other conquerors, and to return with ſuch a force as might enable him to enlarge his conqueſts. For this purpoſe he employed 20,000 Indians in digging the mines of Quilacoya and Angol, which had never been opened before, and thereby enriched both himſelf and his ſoldiers. He then marched farther ſouthward, where he diſcovered ſo many rich mines, that he employed 50,000 Indians in working them; but his ſoldiers grew ſo indolent and luxurious, and the Indians being greatly exaſperated by being compelled to dig in the mines, and by aſſembling ſo many of them together for that laborious employment, that they gave the Indians an opportunity of forming a conſpiracy againſt them.

Accordingly

Accordingly the Araucans, who were the braveſt nation among the Chileſians, took the advantage of Baldivia's abſence, and engaged the whole country in the conſpiracy. The whole Chileſian army, which conſiſted of about 80,000 men, aſſembled at a kind of feſtival, when it was unanimouſly agreed to riſe againſt the Spaniards, and recover their country from ſlavery. After ſome debate about the choice of a commander, they at laſt concurred in electing Caupolican, as the braveſt ſoldier and the ableſt chief, to whom they all ſwore obedience, and promiſed to execute his orders, for the promotion of their common intereſt.

The Spaniards had one of their caſtles near the place of this rendezvous, which the Indians were impatient to attack openly, but were prevented by their general, who took it by ſtratagem. Baldivia ſoon received intelligence of this inſurrection, and returned with great expedition to the valley of Arauca, depending ſo much on his own courage and fortune, that he would not wait for reinforcements from the other garriſons.

Caupolican with 20,000 men met Baldivia, where, after forming his army in proper order, and encouraging his ſoldiers to bravery and intrepidity, his firſt battalion engaged the Spaniſh horſe with great boldneſs, and held the engagement for a conſiderable time; after which they retired, and were ſucceeded by another battalion, who followed the example of the firſt, and were alſo ſucceeded by others in the ſame man-

ner, for ſeven or eight hours without intermiſſion, till the Spaniards began to faint and give way. Baldivia then attempted to make a precipitate retreat, but was prevented by the Indians; who, being animated with ſucceſs, and exhorted to intrepidity by their general, attacked them ſo furiouſly, that they ſoon cut all the Spaniards to pieces, except Baldivia, whom they took priſoner, bound his hands behind him, and conducted him to their general Caupolican. He ordered Baldivia to be tied to a tree, that he might be executed with more ceremony than thoſe who died in the field. The Spaniſh general petitioned for his life, which Caupolican would have granted him, out of eſteem for his courage, but one of the confederate caciques was ſo much incenſed at ſuch a propoſal, that he gave Baldivia a violent blow on the head with a club; after which they ſerved him as the Parthians did Craſſus, by pouring melted gold down his throat, at the ſame time bidding him content himſelf in this manner with his inſatiable thirſt after that metal.

When the Spaniards received the fatal news of the defeat of Baldivia, Velagra his lieutenant aſſembled all the Spaniſh forces which were diſperſed in the ſeveral provinces of Chili, and was joined by a great number of their Indian allies. With theſe he marched to the valley of Arauca, to give battle to Caupolican. He accordingly attacked the Indian army; and the battle was bravely diſputed on both ſides, till the Spaniards were

were obliged to retreat, which they did fighting and defending themſelves all the way.

The governor of Peru being informed of this diſagreeable news, and being apprehenſive that all Chili would be loſt, ſent his ſon Don Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza, with a powerful reinforcement to oppoſe the confederate Indians. Mendoza had ſeveral bloody battles with the Indians, in which the latter were obliged to retire with great loſs; notwithſtanding they ſtill continued the war, and bravely ſtruggled for their natural liberty againſt the violence of their invaders. Caupolican the brave Indian general, who defeated Baldivia, and put him to death, was at laſt taken priſoner by the Spaniards, and underwent the ſame fate. Baldivia petitioned for his life to the Indians, ſo did Caupolican to the Spaniards, who were equally unmerciful; for after this Indian hero had promiſed to cauſe all the country to ſubmit to the King of Spain, his cruel and unrelenting enemies publicly ſentenced him to be empaled alive, and ſhot to death with arrows, for a terror to the reſt of the Indians.

But the death of Caupolican only contributed to render the hatred of the Indians more implacable to the Spaniards, to make the wound almoſt incurable, and rekindle the war with more animoſity. The Chileſians being determined to preſerve their independency, aſſembled freſh forces, and attacked the Spaniſh colonies, ſome of which were taken and retaken ſeveral times; ſo that the war continued to be carried on with

great

great obſtinacy and cruelty for upwards of fifty years, when it appears by the Spaniards own relation, that they were driven with great ſlaughter from many of their ſettlements in Chili.

The Dutch ſent a ſquadron under Capt. Brewer in 1642, in order to ſettle colonies on the coaſt of Chili, but failed in the attempt.

The Chileſians being ſo enraged, and at the ſame time ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Spaniards, encouraged the Dutch Weſt-India company, in 1642, to fit out a ſquadron, under the command of Capt. Brewer, who was ordered to ſail to the coaſt of Chili, and ſettle colonies there; becauſe they imagined he might eaſily poſſeſs himſelf of ſome of the gold mines; concluding, that all nations who were enemies to the Spaniards would be received as friends by the Chileſians. The Dutch defeated a body of Spaniards, and took the town of Carelmappa, which they burnt, and retired to their ſhips. They afterwards took the town of Caſtro, on the iſland of Chiloe, and intended to reduce the whole country of Chili under the dominion of the States-General of the United Provinces; for which purpoſe they contracted a friendſhip with ſome of the caciques, who readily entered into an alliance againſt the Spaniards, and permitted the Dutch to erect a fort at Baldivia; but they ruined the whole ſcheme by their own indiſcretion. For when the Dutch propoſed a commercial intercourſe with the Chileſians, and to exchange arms and other neceſſaries for their gold, the caciques immediately

mediately appeared jealous of their new allies, declaring they had no gold mines, and that there was no ſuch thing as gold in uſe among the natives. They alſo refuſed to ſupply the Dutch with proviſions, whereby they were under a neceſſity of relinquiſhing the expedition, and of returning to Brazil, which was then under their ſubjection.

The court of England was afterwards deſirous of making ſome ſettlements in Chili, to which the miniſtry of King Charles II. was encouraged by the intelligence they received from an old Spaniard, who had formerly reſided in South America, importing, that the Spaniards had almoſt abandoned Chili, and that it would not be difficult for the Engliſh to cultivate a good underſtanding with the natives, as they were ſo dreadfully incenſed againſt the barbarous proceedings of the Spaniards. He alſo obſerved, that it would not be a difficult taſk to eſtabliſh a very advantageous trade with them, whoſe principal returns would be in gold. He likewiſe pointed out Baldivia as the port where there would be the greateſt probability of ſucceſs in ſuch an enterpriſe. In conſequence of this information, a man of war of thirty-ſix guns and a pink were fitted out, under the command of Sir John Narborough, who ſailed from England on the 26th of September 1669, and arrived at Baldivia on the 15th of December 1670. He was expreſsly commanded

The Engliſh ſent two ſhips in 1670, under the command of Sir John Narborough, in order to ſettle colonies in Chili, and to eſtabliſh a trade with the natives.

commanded to give no moleſtation to the Spaniards in their ſettlements, nor to commit any acts of hoſtility againſt Spain: but the Spaniards would not permit him to trade with the Indians, and ſeized his lieutenant with three of his men, whom they detained as priſoners. Sir John, upon this occaſion, thought of reſcuing them by force, but ſoon altered this reſolution, either becauſe his force was inſufficient, or elſe, that he recollected the fate of the renowned Sir Walter Raleigh, who loſt his head for attacking the Spaniards in America without expreſs orders. Upon theſe conſiderations, and perceiving that his force was inſufficient for ſettling colonies here, eſpecially as his orders reſtricted him from attacking the Spaniards, he therefore left the coaſt, and returned to England.

The Chileſians ſtill continued their oppoſition againſt the Spaniards till the year 1690, when they entered into a treaty of peace, whereby they acknowledged the King of Spain for their lawful ſovereign, and the Spaniards agreed to permit them to live in a peaceable manner, according to their laws and cuſtoms. However, theſe Indians entertain an hereditary averſion to the Spaniards, who have never been able to reduce them to their ſubjection by the force of arms, or to gain them to their intereſt by the effect of preſents. They have traditionary relations of the cruelties committed by the Spaniards on their anceſtors; they glow,

The Chileſians concluded a treaty of peace with the Spaniards.

glow, on every ſeaſonable occaſion, with a warm ſpirit of reſentment againſt the invaders of their country, and they ſtill retain their primitive love for liberty; ſo that there is the higheſt probability they would readily join with any other European powers to expel the Spaniards out of their dominions.

Though the country of Chili be of prodigious extent, yet, according to the lateſt and beſt accounts, the number of inhabitants is very diſproportionable to ſuch an extent of territory. The Spaniards throughout the whole are not computed to exceed 20,000 men capable of bearing arms. The meſtizoes, mulattoes, and negroes are between 70 and 80,000; but the bulk of the inhabitants are Indians, ſome of whom are ſtyled free, and others ſubjected.

The free Indians acknowledge the King of Spain as their ſovereign, but pay him no tribute; theſe amount to many thouſands, and inhabit the greateſt part of the country, eſpecially towards the mountains, being governed by their reſpective chiefs, called *caciques*.

The ſubjected Indians are about 15,000, who belong to the Spaniards, live among them, and ſerve them in the condition of a kind of vaſſalage, not in a ſtate of ſlavery.

CHAP. VIII.

The extent and boundaries, climate and ſoil of Chili; its vegetables, mines, animals, and produce. A general view of the trade of Chili, with the method of travelling from it to Buenos Ayres, &c.

The extent and boundaries of Chili.

SOme writers, particularly Ovalle, extend this country ſouthwards as far as the ſtreights of Magellan; others alſo include the iſland of Terra del Fogo, and part of Patagonia in this diſtrict, making it run from 26 to 57 deg. of ſouth latitude; but its real bounds are far from being ſo extenſive: for the proper diviſion of Chili lies in a long narrow ſlip along the coaſt of the South ſea, in the ſouth temperate zone, between the parallels of 26 and 45 deg. of ſouth latitude, and between 47 and 54 deg. of weſt longitude, being bounded by Peru on the north, the province of La Plata on the eaſt, by Patagonia on the ſouth, and the Pacific ocean on the weſt; ſo that it is about 1200 miles long, and 600 broad in ſome places. For though the country properly called *Chili* is not above ninety miles from the ſea to the Andian mountains, yet his Catholic Majeſty, in the diviſion of the bounds of the ſeveral governments in America, added to Chili the large plains of Cuyo, or Chicuito, whith lie to the eaſt of theſe mountains.

The face of this country is remarkably beautiful,

tiful, being diverſified with pleaſant hills and fruitful plains; the air is ſurpri- Climate and ſoil.
ſingly clear and ſerene, ſcarce any changes happening for three parts of the year; and very little rain falls during that period, but the benign dews every night, and the many rivulets which the neighbourhood of the Andes ſupply them, fertilize the plain country in a wonderful manner, and make it produce as much corn, wine, oil, and fruits, as the number of the inhabitants, which is very ſmall, or their induſtry, which is but very moderate, will ſuffer them to cultivate. If it were under the direction of a more favourable government, and better peopled, there is ſcarcely any part of the world that could enter into competition with this: for at the ſame time that it enjoys a very ſalubrious air, and is warmed by a heat nowiſe oppreſſive, it bears many of the tropical fruits that would thrive no where elſe out of the torrid zone. It is luxuriant on the ſurface with every thing for profit or delight, and beneath it is rich to profuſion with veins of gold, ſilver, copper, lead, quickſilver, and iron. But thoſe of gold are moſt wrought; and what is ſurpriſing, there is ſcarce a rivulet in the country in which gold is not found either in ſmaller or greater plenty.

As this country lies far to the ſouth of the equinox, the ſeaſons here are oppo- Seaſons.
ſite to thoſe in the northern parts of the hemiſphere; for the ſpring in Chili begins about the middle of Auguſt, and continues to the middle of November, when the ſummer

commences, which laſts till the middle of February, when the autumn begins, and holds till the middle of May, being ſucceeded by winter, which ſtrips the trees of their verdant cloathing, and covers the earth with white froſt: however, during this ſeaſon, there is little ſnow in the valleys, but ſuch immenſe quantities fall upon the mountains, ſo as ſometimes to fill up all the hollow places to a great height; from whence it ſtreams out, and ſupplies many rivers and ſprings, which refreſh the neighbouring plains, and render them vaſtly prolific. Thunder is ſometimes heard, but is at ſo great a diſtance, up in the mountains, that the low country is free from lightning. There is no hail in ſpring or ſummer, nor are there ſo many cloudy days in winter as in other places; but generally, after the rain has continued two or three days, the ſky clears up with great ſerenity: for as ſoon as the north wind ceaſes, the ſouth wind ſucceeds, and in a few hours drives away the rain; or, if it happens during the night, the dew falls, and the ſun riſes with additional luſtre. Some trees loſe their foliage in winter, but others preſerve a perennial verdure; for though they are covered with ice and ſnow, the cold is ſo far from injuring them, that, when the ſun diſſolves the froſt, they appear more green and beautiful.

The heavens and ſtars here appear remarkably clear and beautiful. If the ſtars of the arctic pole appear with more magnitude than thoſe of the antarctic, yet, as to their ſplendour, their numbers,

numbers, the light they afford, and the purity of the heavens where they are, the advantage is on the antarctic; which is owing to the temperature of the climate; for as the country of Chili inclines to drineſs, rather than humidity, the ſun raiſes few vapours, therefore the air is clearer, and the brightneſs of the ſtars more conſpicuous: ſo that thoſe who ſail from Peru to Chili, are ſenſible when they come to the height of the latter, by the azure beauty of the horizon, which they perceive diſengaged from clouds, gilded and glorious, with its refulgence increaſing every day, as they advance in a ſouthern direction. Whereas, when they ſail for the line from Chili, the nearer they approach to the tropic, that light and ſplendour grows duller and weaker.

The country of Chili has ſtill another advantage, which conſiſts in its being free from poiſonous creatures; ſuch as vipers, ſnakes, ſcorpions, and toads; nor are there any tygers, panthers, or other rapacious animals, except ſome lions of a ſmall kind, which ſometimes prey upon flocks of ſheep, or herds of goats; but always ſhun the appearance of men, not only in cultivated lands, but in woods and ſolitudes. But it is neceſſary to obſerve, that all this muſt be underſtood of the countries which lie to the weſt of the Andes; for what is beyond theſe mountains, as the land of Cuyo, Tucuman, and Buenos Ayres, though ſituated in the ſame latitude with Chili, are very different from

from it in climate, and many other reſpects, which will be afterwards taken notice of.

This country is watered with great numbers of rivers and ſprings, of which there are upwards of fifty, which riſe in the Andes, and run through Chili into the South ſea, being joined by many other leſſer ſtreams, which fall into them in their courſe; but few of them are navigable, for veſſels of any burthen, far beyond their mouths, becauſe they run only a courſe of about ninety miles from their ſources; all thoſe rivers which flow from the Andes weſtward, and fall into the South ſea, being rapid torrents, generally occaſioned by the melting of the ſnows, and the declivity of the ground.

Rivers.

There are numerous ſprings, lakes, and ſalutary fountains in the plains and valleys of Chili; ſome of theſe lakes are of freſh water, and others of ſalt, which have a communication with the ſea, ſome part of the year.

The appearance of the country to the eaſt of the Andes, is very different from that on the weſt; for on the ſummits of the mountains both horizons may be diſcovered; that towards the eaſt being inveloped with ſuch thick vapours, as to prevent the flow of light, and overſhadow all the country; while the heavens are ſo bright and placid towards the weſt, as to give infinite pleaſure to the eye of the beholder. There is alſo a difference in the trees, plants, and animals on each ſide of the mountains. In going down to the eaſtward, the fountains and

rivers

rivers are few and muddy, the face of the land melancholy, and few trees or verdure to recreate the ſight, unleſs in thoſe parts where the heats begin to be exceſſive: but as ſoon as travellers deſcend to the weſtward, they meet with lovely ſprings, umbrageous trees, fragrant groves, and charming valleys; the mildneſs of the ſea-air is felt from the foot of the mountains; the harmony of the birds is delightful to the ears, and many other objects pleaſant to the eye.

With regard to the produce of Chili, it is to be obſerved, that the fruits of Mexico and Peru are very far from coming to perfection here, but thoſe of Europe thrive ſurpriſingly; eſpecially apples, pears, apricots, peaches, and quinces, which bear to ſuch a degree, that, if care is not taken to leſſen the quantity of fruit while it is young, it is impoſſible for the boughs to ſuſtain the weight of them; they are alſo obliged to ſupport the branches with poles, before they are fit to be gathered. The fruit that exceeds all the reſt in bearing, is the apple of all kinds, of which there are many very extenſive orchards; but fruit is ſeldom ſold here, becauſe any perſon may ſtep into a garden or orchard, and eat what he pleaſes, without any interruption, except ſtrawberries, which, when cultivated, are ſold very dear, and they are ſaid to be of an extraordinary big kind. Here are great quantities of olives and grapes, particularly the muſcadel grape, which yields a noble and generous wine; the

Fruits.

the branches of the vines are very thick, and the bunches of grapes vaſtly large; but there is ſuch plenty of them, that it proves a grievance, becauſe there is no vent for ſuch quantities, and the Indians frequently kill themſelves by drinking to exceſs.

Foreſt trees.

The principal foreſt trees of this country, are the cypreſs, cedar, oak, paraqua, cinnamon, gayac, thorn-buſh, ſandal, and palm. The cypreſs moſt commonly grows in the precipices of the Cordillera, being large and lofty, yielding a fine odorous ſmell; and though it be very plentiful, yet it ſells dear, eſpecially in Peru, where it is tranſported, and uſed in building, particularly for the inſide of their churches. The cedars are larger than the cypreſs; the colour of the wood, when firſt worked, is red, but it gradually loſes that lively colour, and reſembles the complexion of the walnut-tree wood. The oaks thrive exceedingly, grow thick, and yield very large planks. The cinnamon tree is ſo called, from its having ſome reſemblance to the true cinnamon of the iſland of Ceylon, but the bark is deſtitute both of the fine ſmell and taſte of the real cinnamon. The gayac wood is almoſt as hard, and as heavy as iron, being good for many infirmities, when taken by way of decoction. The thornbuſh ſerves for fewel, and they alſo make charcoal of it for the forges. The ſandal-tree is very odoriferous, being reputed as a preſervative againſt the plague. The palm-tree grows generally in the mountains, very thick and lofty; all the

tree

tree is naked to the top, and is quite diſencumbered of ſuch boughs as grow out of the ſides of other trees. Beſides theſe, this country produces vaſt quantities of wild trees, ſeveral kinds of plants, flowers, and medicinal herbs, which would be too tedious to mention.

The Chileſians had great plenty of maize or Indian corn, before the arrival of the Spaniards among them; but they had neither wheat, barley, oats, aniſe, cumin, coriander-ſeed, lint-ſeed, flax, hemp, peaſe, cabbage, lettuce, radiſhes, cucumbers, parſley, garlick, or onions, all which they have now in the greateſt plenty and perfection, and their roots in general grow to a prodigious ſize. Corn and roots.

We formerly obſerved, that no country in the world produced more excellent mines than Chili; yet few of them are wrought, not even the ſilver mines, becauſe thoſe of gold are leſs expenſive, upon which account the inhabitants have turned their induſtry towards them. Mines.

The gold mines are ſo numerous and rich, that from the confines of Peru to the extremeſt part of Chili, even as far as the ſtreights of Magellan, there is no part of the country, in which ſome of theſe mines have not been diſcovered. All the authors who have wrote any thing relating to this country, greatly extol it, for its opulence and fecundity.

The Chileſians, as well as the other natives of America, had no great variety of quadrupeds, till their country was Animals.

diſcovered and poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, who, upwards of 200 years ago, tranſported thither almoſt every ſpecies of European animals, part of which were ſuffered to run wild in the foreſts, where they multiplied ſo greatly, that the Chileſians can now bring a body of 10 or 12,000 horſe into the field at a ſhort warning.

The cows have increaſed to ſuch a prodigious degree, that it is amazing to ſee what numerous herds of them are always feeding in the great plains of Tucuman, Chicuito, and Chili Proper, without any owner; being the property of any perſon who is able to catch them. Their numbers are ſo great, that, according to Ovalle, a murrain is thought a neceſſary purge to leſſen their too great abundance. The richneſs of the ſoil fattens them to ſuch a degree, that 150 pounds weight of tallow is frequently taken out of one cow; and the propagation of their ſpecies is incredible.

Such is the difference of the preſent ſtate of Chili to what it was formerly, that Herrera ſays, when the ſettlement firſt began, a horſe was commonly ſold for a thouſand pieces of eight, or 180 pounds Sterling: but Ovalle ſays, he ſaw horſes accoutred for war, ſold in the territory of St Jago for ten ſhillings Sterling apiece, that were equal to the Neapolitan breed for ſhape, courage, and good qualities. He alſo obſerves, that the cows were firſt bought at an exceſſive price, but are now ſold for a crown

apiece,

apiece, and a ſheep for three pence or four pence.

The ſheep of Chili, or vicunas, which are proper to the country, are of the ſhape of camels; but theſe we deſcribed when treating of the Peruvian animals. Here are alſo vaſt numbers of wild animals of different kinds, together with great plenty of wild fowls, which are much the ſame with thoſe of Peru.

The lakes and rivers abound in good fiſh, as well as the adjacent ſeas: all along the coaſt, are found great numbers of whales and grampuſes, which are of no ſmall value on account of the ambergris they caſt on ſhore, as alſo for their oil. Here are likewiſe ſea-lions of great bigneſs; and the ſea-wolves, or ſeals, are as big as calves, and are found in prodigious numbers all along the coaſt. Sea-animals.

As for the product made by the induſtry of the inhabitants of Chili, it conſiſts principally in the breed of their cattle, whoſe tallow, hides, and dried fleſh, are ſent to Lima, where having firſt retained the neceſſary proportion for themſelves, the merchants diſtribute the reſt all over Peru; the hides particularly are ſent to Potoſi, and all that inland tract of mines, where moſt of their cloathing comes from Chili: they are alſo carried to Panama, Carthagena, and other parts of that continent.

The ſecond product is the cordage and tackling, with which all the ſhips of the South ſeas are furniſhed; for hemp grows no where in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, but in Chili, and there

is alſo pack-thread exported, with other ſmaller cordage.

The third product conſiſts of mules, which are ſent to Potoſi, through the deſert of Aracama.

The fourth product is the cocoa-nuts, which are the fruit of the palm-trees; which are not indeed produced by induſtry, but grow wild and thick in the mountains, without any cultivation. Almonds, and the product of gardens, which are not found in Peru, are likewiſe carried thither with great profit. The merchants who trade from Chili to Peru make very great profits, amounting ſometimes to two or three hundred per cent. However, the Chileſians labour under a great misfortune, namely, the want of vent for their valuable commodities; for the land is ſo luxuriant, and produces every thing in ſuch plenty, that they cannot get a ſufficient market to diſpoſe of them.

Upon this foundation it is generally affirmed, that no country in America has a more ſolid eſtabliſhment than Chili; for, in proportion to the increaſe of the inhabitants of Peru, Chili muſt alſo increaſe in riches, ſince it is able to ſupply any great conſumption, and yet have enough for its own, in all kinds of corn, wine, fleſh, oil, ſalt, fruits, pulſe, wool, flax, hides, tallow, leather, ropes, timber, medicinal remedies, fiſh of all kinds, metals of all ſorts, and amber, *&c.*

Throughout the whole kingdom the herbage and the fiſhing are common, as alſo hunting,

ing, with the woods for fewel and timber; and the ſame is practiſed as to the ſalt mines. Beſides, there is no impoſition on trade, every one being free to tranſport what goods he pleaſes, either within or without the kingdom.

The Chileſians are furniſhed with all kinds of European and Eaſt-India goods from Lima; they alſo receive ſome European commodities by way of Buenos Ayres, to which place they carry on a conſiderable trade, in the following manner.

Thoſe employed in this trade travel in covered carts and waggons, made almoſt as commodious as a houſe, with the doors to ſhut, and windows on each ſide to give free admittance to the freſh air; laying beds or mattreſſes on the floor, on which they ſleep. Theſe waggons are drawn by oxen, who ſet out two hours before ſun-ſet, travelling all night, till the ſun is an hour high next morning; when the paſſengers reſt, and eat the proviſions they carry with them, or take in hunting by the way; for thoſe who are diſpoſed for rural ſports, take horſes and dogs with them, by the aſſiſtance of which, they take great numbers of wild ſheep and goats, with other game; from whence a perſon might ſeem inclined to think, that it muſt be a very pleaſant journey from Chili to Buenos Ayres; but travellers inform us, that they are ſubject to many inconveniencies, which very much abate the pleaſure of it; particularly great heats, which obliges them to keep under the covert of their waggons, during the meri-

dian

dian ſplendour; and this is all the defence they have, both againſt the heat and rain. Another inconvenience is the want of water, which is not met with, ſometimes, for ſeveral days journey, which obliges the travellers to carry water both for themſelves and their cattle: however, all this might be remedied, if the country through which they paſs was inhabited, for they meet with ſprings in many places, within a few yards of the ſurface; and the rains alone, which happen frequently in ſummer, might be preſerved in ciſterns and reſervoirs, if there were any towns or villages in the country. When theſe merchants arrive at Buenos Ayres, they diſpoſe of their commodities, or barter them for European goods, with which they return to Chili.

We ſhall conclude this chapter by obſerving, that the Chileſian Indians only, of all the people of America, can ſay they are gainers by being acquainted with the Spaniards; for moſt of them ſtill retain their liberties, and have acquired the poſſeſſion of European cattle, fowls, grain, and fruits, which they formerly wanted. They have alſo learned ſeveral arts and ſciences of the Europeans, and in many inſtances are ſaid to excel their maſters.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

An account of the three grand diviſions of Chili, with a deſcription of their chief cities and principal towns; their ſituation, government, and trade, &c.

HAving now given an account of the climate and produce of Chili, we ſhall proceed to the geographical deſcription of the country, which is entirely under the government of its preſident, the viceroy of Peru ſeldom interfering with this province, as it is at ſo great a diſtance from Lima. For the more eaſy diſtribution of juſtice, it is divided into three provinces or audiences.

1. The biſhopric of St Jago or Chili Proper. 2. The province of Imperial or Conception. Both theſe provinces are ſituated between the South ſeas and the Cordillera mountains, being what is properly called *Chili*. 3. The large province of Cuyo, which lies to the eaſt of theſe mountains.

1. The diſtrict of St Jago extends from the frontiers of Peru in latitude 25. to the river Maule in 35 deg. of ſouth latitude, containing the following conſiderable cities, ſea-port towns, and other places.

1. St Jago, or James the apoſtle, the capital of all Chili, is ſituated in 69 deg. 40 min. weſt longitude, and 33 deg. 12 min. ſouth latitude, about fifty-four miles eaſt St Jago.

eaſt of the Pacific ocean, ſtanding in a beautiful plain of about ſeventy-five miles in extent, and watered by three rivers, the principal of which is the Maypocho. This river is ſwelled in ſummer by the melting of the ſnow in the Cordillera, and in winter by the exceſſive rains, yet is for the moſt part fordable.

For preventing inundations, the inhabitants have built a wall and a dyke, by means of which the waters are at all times conveyed for watering their gardens, and cooling the ſtreets. Beſides theſe, they draw larger ſtreams for driving the mills in the ſeveral parts of the city. The ſtreets are laid out according to the four cardinal points; they are exactly in a line, and neatly paved with ſmall ſtones. It was founded in the year 1541 by Peter Baldivia, who cauſed the plan of it to be marked out in ſquares; each of theſe ſquares of houſes was divided into four parts, for every perſon to have a commodious apartment. Though, in proceſs of time, that ſpace was farther divided into ſeveral other parts, yet they have ſtill ſo much room that there is ſcarce a houſe in the town without a court before it and a garden behind it.

The earthquakes, which are frequent here, have greatly endamaged the city, particularly thoſe of 1647 and 1657; the former almoſt overturned the whole town, and left ſuch noxious vapours that many of the inhabitants died. Since that time there has been ſome alteration in the plan, by the enlarging of monaſteries, ſome of which have extended beyond the ſtraight

lines.

lines. About the middle of the city is the Placa Real, or Royal ſquare, with eight avenues leading to it, and in the centre is a fountain with a braſs baſin. The weſt ſide contains the cathedral and the biſhop's palace; the north ſide the preſident's new palace, the royal court, the council-houſe, and priſon; the ſouth ſide is a row of porticoes, or uniform arches, for the convenience of merchants, with a gallery over theſe for ſeeing the bull-fights.

The houſes, as is uſual throughout Chili, have only a ground-floor built with unburnt bricks, and here they are handſomer than elſewhere, and the churches richer in gilding, but the whole architecture is generally mean and of an ill taſte. All the churches have a ſmall area for proceſſions, moſt of them are built with bricks, but ſome are of free ſtone, and others of pebbles from a ſmall rock, called *St Lucy's hill*, eaſt of the city, from the top of which is a full view of the city and parts adjacent.

The governor has the titles of Preſident and Captain-General, on account of his two employments of the gown and the ſword. He preſides in the royal court, which is compoſed of four judges and two fiſcals, one of whom has the charge of protecting the Indians, and of the affairs of the croiſade; alſo a head ſerjeant of the court, with other officers. No appeal lies from a judgment on a writ of error, or review upon a royal deciſion, which only takes cogniſance of matters of moment, unleſs it be the royal council of the Indies: other matters

are decided in the council-houſe, which is compoſed of two judges, a royal enſign, a head ſerjeant, and ſix aldermen.

Though the preſident here be ſubordinate to the viceroy of Peru, yet the diſtance very much leſſens the ſubordination, ſo that he may be conſidered in Chili as viceroy himſelf during the time his government continues.

The eccleſiaſtic ſtate, as well as the ſecular, has a dependence on Lima; but the Biſhop's power here is very much circumſcribed, the laws not allowing him the diſpoſal of any cure, even the Pope has not his turn here. There are eight monaſteries of men, three of Franciſcans, two of Jeſuits, one of the order of Mercy, one of the brethren of St John, and one of Dominicans, which are the only orders eſtabliſhed throughout all Chili. There are alſo five nunneries; and all theſe communities are numerous, ſome of them containing above 200 perſons.

The tribunal of the inquiſition of Chili is alſo ſettled at St Jago, where the commiſſary-general reſides, with his officers, who are the informers; and other commiſſaries are diſperſed throughout all the towns and villages ſubordinate to him, who apply themſelves to the diſcovery of ſuch unhappy perſons as they think proper to ſubject to the inhuman proceedings of this diabolical court.

The number of inhabitants of St Jago is computed about 8000 whites, and between 20 and 30,000 Indians and mulattoes. The citizens are generally rich, and ſome of them are continually

continually accumulating fortunes, by being concerned in the gold mines at Tiltil, which are about half-way between St Jago and the ſea, as alſo in ſeveral lavaderoes nearer the city, which are extremely rich.

2. Valparaiſo is ſituated on the South ſea, in 32 deg. 35 min. of ſouth latitude, about ninety miles north-weſt of St Jago, which it ſerves in nature of a port. Valparaiſo.

This is one of the moſt conſiderable havens in theſe ſeas, being conſtantly frequented by veſſels from Callao and Panama, which come here to load corn. The harbour is tolerably good, eſpecially in the ſummer-months, but not ſo ſecure in time of winter, by reaſon of its lying open to the north winds; which obliges them to run the ſhips ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that they have three anchors on the land made faſt to ſtones or piles, at which diſtance they have ſtill eight or ten fathom water.

Formerly the fort here was of little ſignification, both becauſe it was ill built, and becauſe the road it defends is near other creeks, which afford the ſame conveniencies as here, particularly the creek of Quintero, which is defenceleſs, and but five leagues from Valparaiſo. It is true, that the bay of Valparaiſo, as being neareſt to the capital, is the moſt frequented in Chili; for which reaſon the Spaniards have judged it proper to ſecure it againſt the inſults of the Britiſh and Dutch, who have often ranged theſe coaſts.

The town ſtands at the foot of the fortreſs,

conſiſting of about 100 houſes, without any order, and of ſeveral heights, ſtretching along the ſea, where are the granaries and ſtorehouſes for corn; it contains about 150 families, but few of them are whites, being moſtly blacks, mulattoes, and meſtizoes.

The ſhipping from Lima and Panama generally arrive here in October, and return in March, in order to avoid the north winds; theſe furniſh all the harbours of Chili with European goods, ſuch as cloth, ſilk, and other things which the Chileſians want; their returns conſiſt chiefly in grain of all ſorts, wine, hides, tallow, *&c.* Commodore Anſon, in September 1741, took a veſſel of 450 tuns, called the Carmelo, bound from Callao to this port; ſhe had on board fifty-three ſailors and twenty-five paſſengers; her lading conſiſted chiefly in ſugars, great quantities of blue cloth, ſeveral bales of cotton, and ſome trunks of wrought plate. The Trial ſloop, in her ſtation off Valparaiſo, took another prize of 600 tons, proceeding on the ſame voyage, and with much the ſame cargo as the Carmelo.

La Serena.

3. La Serena, or Coquimbo, was founded by Baldivia in 1554, and is ſituated in 29 deg. 50 min. of ſouth latitude, at the mouth of the river Coquimbo, about 260 miles north from St Jago. It is ſeated at the lower part of the vale of Coquimbo, a quarter of a league from the ſea, on a riſing ground; the firſt ſtreet forms a pleaſant walk, which commands a proſpect of the whole bay and the country

country adjacent. The ſtreets, like St Jago, are all exactly in a ſtraight line from one end to the other, from eaſt to weſt, and from north to ſouth. The moſt conſiderable part of the city is taken up by two ſquares, and ſix monaſteries, without reckoning the pariſh-church and the chapel of St Agnes. Baldivia, who founded this city, called it *La Serena*, on account of the deliciouſneſs of the climate, the ſky here being continually ſerene and pleaſant. Here too a conſtant verdure reigns, without ſtorms, without parching heat, or any cold that is inconvenient. The ſoil is fruitful, and all the country about it abounds with the neceſſaries of life, eſpecially corn, wine, and oil, exquiſite in their kind, and exceſſively cheap; there is the ſame plenty of cattle, tame and wild fowl, and in the adjacent valley there is a remarkable fine breed of horſes. The trade of this place conſiſts in ſending four or five ſhips yearly to Lima, laden with flour, wine, and other proviſions, in return for which they receive all ſorts of European goods, which are tranſported from hence into other parts of Chili. They alſo ſupply St Jago with wine and oil, which is reckoned the beſt along the coaſt.

About three leagues north-eaſt from this town there are excellent copper mines, which ſupply the whole coaſts of Chili and Peru with utenſils for the kitchen, but they uſe fewer of that than of earthen-ware, or ſilver. In the winter-ſeaſon, when the rains are violent, all the little brooks bring down gold, of which, if they had

hands

hands enough, a great profit might be made; but the diſcovery of the mines of Copiapo, and the ſeverities of the chief magiſtrates, daily contribute towards the unpeopling of this place, whoſe inhabitants at preſent are ſaid not to exceed 12,000 perſons in whole.

Copiapo.

4. Copiapo is ſituated in 70 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude, and 27 deg. of ſouth latitude, 500 miles north of St Jago, at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which, with an iſland that lies before it, forms a tolerable harbour. This town lies about 180 miles north from La Serena; but the country between them is one of the worſt in the world, having neither town, village, tree or ſhrub, river or brook, ſo that the cattle upon the road frequently periſh for want of refreſhment; however, there are ſeveral mines of copper and tin in this unhoſpitable country.

The port of Caldera belongs to the town of Copiapo, having a tolerably ſafe road, and would probably be much frequented, if wood and water were not ſo ſcarce.

Copiapo lies about fourteen leagues to the eaſtward of Port Caldera, in a very miſerable country; its houſes do not ſtand in any order, but lie ſcattered up and down, being a place of little conſequence till the year 1710, when it began to be conſidered in another light. A Spaniſh writer ſays, it is now one of the richeſt places in the world, and that its foundations are of gold, meaning, that the town ſtands upon a gold mine, which is exceſſively rich; however,

this

this is not wrought at preſent, becauſe they have diſcovered ſtill richer mines about ſix miles diſtant, from whence they bring the ore on mules to the mills, which are within the town.

It is uncertain what theſe mines might produce if properly managed; in 1720 a thouſand hands were employed in working them, the number of their mills increaſed to twelve, and then it was computed that they annually produced to the value of 80,000 pounds Sterling.

Beſides thoſe of gold, there are alſo ſeveral mines of iron, braſs, tin, and lead about Copiapo, which the inhabitants have not thought proper to work as yet; though the lead mines about ſixty miles ſouth of the town are ſuppoſed, by ſome intelligent perſons, to be as valuable as the gold ones, becauſe ſome people who have viſited them have picked up, on the ſurface of the earth, ſeveral pounds of lapis lazuli, one of the moſt valuable commodities in the world, being a ſort of precious ſtone, of a blue colour, veined and ſpotted with white and yellow; and it is affirmed, that this Chileſian ſtone is not at all inferior to that which is brought from Perſia and Siam, but is rather of a deeper blue with fewer veins.

In the Cordillera mountains, about 100 miles to the ſouth-eaſt, there are mines of the fineſt ſulphur that can be ſeen, which is taken pure from a vein two feet wide, without requiring to be cleanſed. In ſhort, all the country is full of mines of ſalgem, or rock-ſalt, for which reaſon ſweet water is very ſcarce. Saltpetre is no

leſs

leſs plentiful, it being found in the vale an inch thick on the ground, which alone would be ſufficient to attract a trade in any other country.

Between Copiapo and La Serena is no town or village of any conſideration, only a few farms; nor are there any other inland towns of note in the dioceſe of St Jago except the capital of that name.

The biſhopric of Imperial.

2. The moſt ſoutherly province poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, is the biſhopric of Imperial, or Conception, which extends from the river Maule in 35 deg. to the river Gallego in 46 deg. 20 min. of ſouth latitude: the climate of this province is much like that of Old Spain.

This dioceſe contains in it the following cities, ſea-port towns, &c.

The city of Imperial.

1. The city of Imperial, which gives name to the diſtrict, is ſituated in 72 deg. 15 min. weſt longitude, and 38 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, in one of the moſt agreeeble ſituations in the whole country, on a pleaſant river, anciently called *Cauten*, but now *Imperial*, from the city. It is about 130 miles diſtant from Conception, ten and twelve from the ſea, 330 from St Jago, and ſeventy north from Baldivia. The whole diſtrict round the city is very fertile, producing corn, and all ſorts of fruit and pulſe. The country is partly hills and partly valleys; the former are of a gentle and eaſy aſcent, with good paſture and ſhelter for cattle. The ground does not require much watering,

watering, as being fertilized with frequent and plentiful dews.

This was an epiſcopal ſee, and at its firſt eſtabliſhment promiſed to be a large and populous city, on account of the excellency of the ſoil and ſituation; but having been deſtroyed by the Indians, it declined greatly, and the epiſcopal ſee was removed to Conception.

The river Imperial is large, runs a great way up into the country, and its banks are well inhabited by Indians; but it is neceſſary to obſerve, that its mouth affords no good harbour to ſhips of burden, becauſe of the flats, which are only about three and a half fathoms in depth.

2. The city of Conception, by the Indians called *Penco*, is ſituated on the edge of the ſea at the bottom of a bay of the ſame name. It lies in 37 deg. ſouth latitude, and 78 deg. 41 min. of weſt longitude. It was ſeveral times deſtroyed by the powerful confederacy of the Indians under their general Caupolican, and as many times repaired. In 1730 it was deſtroyed by an earthquake, and ſince that time rebuilt. Conception.

Father Feuillee, who reſided ſome time in this city, gives the following account of it. "It is ſeated in a little valley, called *Penco*, on "the ſea-ſhore; having on the eaſt high "mountains, from which deſcend little rivers, "that run acroſs the town. On the north it "has the entrance of the bay, the bay itſelf on "the weſt, and the river Biobio on the ſouth.

"The ſtreets, like thoſe of all the towns in the "Spaniſh dominions, are drawn by a line, and "moſt of the houſes are built with earth in the "form of oblong ſquares, only one ſtory high, "and covered with pantiles: they are large, "but ill furniſhed. Each houſe has a garden "belonging to it, well furniſhed with all ſorts "of fruit-trees, which produce ſuch prodi-"gious quantities of fruit, that they are obli-"ged to thin them, otherwiſe the branches "would break, nor could the fruit come to "maturity."

There are ſix monaſteries in this city. Towards the middle of the town, is a large ſquare, on the ſouth ſide of which ſtands the pariſh-church. On the eaſt ſide ſtood the biſhop's palace; and on the two other ſides are ſhops, where the women go in the night-time to buy ſuch neceſſaries as they want for their families; it being contrary to the cuſtom of this country, for women of any reputation to go abroad in the day; which is a very ſingular, though conſiderable abuſe. The country in which the town of Conception is ſeated, abounds in all things, not only to ſupply the neceſſaries of life, but alſo containing infinite wealth. Gold is found in moſt parts of the country; and if it was inhabited by a laborious people, it might be had in a thouſand places, only by waſhing the earth in water, and ſeparating it from the gold.

The inhabitants of this city are a regular militia, trained to arms from their childhood, and muſt be always ready on the firſt alarm, for fear

of

of the ſudden or unexpected incurſions of the Indians; the town is open on all ſides, and commanded by five eminences, among which that of the hermitage advances almoſt to the middle, and overlooks it all. It has no other defence than a low battery, on the edge of the ſea; and this commands only the anchoring-place before the town; nor is this want of fortifications well ſupplied by men or able officers. The ſecurity of the town conſiſts in its trade, which keeps a conſiderable number of ſhips in the bay; and this intimidates the Indians from attempting any thing againſt the inhabitants, who, from a confidence therein, live in eaſe and indolence.

The iſland of Quiriquina lies at the mouth of Conception, being ſomewhat lower than the continent, with which it forms two paſſages into the bay; that to the W. S. W. is not very good for large ſhips, though paſſable in caſe of neceſſity. The north-eaſt paſſage is half a league wide, and quite free from any danger. The bay itſelf is two leagues wide from eaſt to weſt, but three from north to ſouth. There are every where conveniencies for wooding and watering; as alſo for building of ſhips.

The incurſions of the Indians have occaſioned the removing of the royal court of chancery which was eſtabliſhed at Conception in 1567, to the city of St Jago. But ſince the Indians have poſſeſſed themſelves of Imperial, this city has become the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Lima.

There is a beneficial trade carried on by the inhabitants of this city, with the Indians behind them, who trade with the Spaniards in a very peculiar manner, though they have never negotiated any peace with Spain. Theſe Indians are called *Aucaes*, and inhabit the mountains, where they retain the primitive cuſtoms and manners of their anceſtors. When a Spaniard comes to trade with them, he addreſſes himſelf to the cacique, or chief; who, on perceiving the ſtranger, cries out, What, are you come? The Spaniard anſwers, Yes, I am come. Then the chief replies, Well, what have you brought me? The merchant anſwers, A preſent; and the prince replies, Then you are welcome. He then provides a lodging for the merchant near his own, where all the family go to viſit the ſtranger, in hopes of ſome preſent; and in the mean time a horn is ſounded to give notice to the Indians who are abroad, that a merchant is arrived. This ſoon aſſembles them together about the merchant, who exhibits his goods, conſiſting of knives, ſciſſars, pins, needles, ribands, ſmall looking-glaſſes, and other toys, which the Indians carry away after ſettling the price, without giving any thing in exchange: but after a certain time is elapſed, the horn is ſounded again, by the direction of the cacique, when the Indians immediately return, and punctually perform their reſpective engagements: the goods they deal in being cattle, furs, and ſome gold; but they bring very ſmall quantities of the latter, as they are ſenſible how dear the poſſeſſion of

that

that metal coſt their anceſtors and neighbours.

3. Baldivia, or rather Valdivia, is ſituated in 72 deg. of weſt longitude, and 39 deg. 40 min. ſouth latitude, 300 miles ſouth of St Jago, and 140 miles north-eaſt of the iſland of Chiloe. It was firſt founded by Peter Baldivia in the year 1552, in a plain about four or five fathoms above the ſurface of the ſea; near which was a fort to keep the Indians in awe; but theſe people were ſo enraged at the tyrannical government of the Spaniards, that they took up arms, killed Baldivia, and freed themſelves from the yoke of Spaniſh ſlavery. They alſo plundered and deſtroyed the town; but it was afterwards rebuilt, a little higher up the land, on an eminence at the point of a peninſula, formed by two rivers, which, with the iſlands before it, make it the moſt ſecure and ſpacious harbour on the coaſt of Chili. Baldivia.

The town is incloſed with walls, built with earth, and defended by twelve pieces of cannon, which are ſixteen pounders; but it has only one pariſh-church, and a convent of Jeſuits.

The harbour, or port of this town, is ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it has engaged the Spaniards to build ſeveral forts to defend the entrance of it againſt ſtrangers; becauſe they look upon it as the key of the South ſeas.

The paſſage up to the town, for great ſhips, is on the eaſt ſide, being about ſix leagues; but it is not above two leagues from the ſea; by

another

another paſſage on the weſt ſide, where the ſmall veſſels go up.

The Dutch were deſirous of ſettling here, in 1643, to ſecure a convenient place for facilitating their entrance into the South ſeas, and accordingly made themſelves maſters of it; but, upon the death of their general and other misfortunes, they were obliged to retire, leaving behind them their baggage, and thirty pieces of cannon.

Commodore Anſon, in 1741, intended to attack it, in purſuance of the reſolution of a council of war, and an article contained in his Majeſty's inſtructions to him to endeavour to ſecure ſome port in the South ſeas, where the ſhips of the ſquadron might be careened and refitted. As Baldivia is the principal frontier of Chili, Lord Anſon propoſed, that the reduction of ſuch an important place ſhould be his firſt attempt after his arrival in the South ſeas; in conſequence of which, new inſtructions were given to the captains of the ſquadron, with reſpect to the courſe they were to ſteer, and where to rendezvous, in caſe of ſeparation: but the total and almoſt inſtantaneous ſeparation of the ſquadron, in paſſing round the iſland of Terra del Fogo, which was owing to the unſeaſonable time of the year when this gallant commander was ſent upon the expedition, prevented his intended attack upon Baldivia.

The white people of Peru and Chili who are baniſhed for their crimes, are ſent to this port, as well as to the town, where they are

employed

employed about the fortifications, and other ſervices of the garriſon. The viceroy ſends annually 300,000 pieces of eight to keep up the fortifications, and maintain the garriſon. The rains here generally continue for ſix months every winter. The number of inhabitants of Baldivia is computed to amount to between two and three thouſand; but its commerce is not ſo conſiderable now as formerly, becauſe ſeveral gold mines in its neighbourhood are at preſent neglected. However, there are ſtill eight or ten veſſels of between four and five hundred tuns, which are employed in carrying on the trade between this port and Lima, where they export hides, goat-ſkins tanned, cordouan leather, ſalt-meat, corn, and ſome gold; bringing back chocolate, ſpices, ſugar, and all ſorts of European goods.

4. Oſorno is an inland town, ſituated about fifty miles ſouth of Baldivia, in ſouth latitude 39 deg. and as many eaſt from the ſea-coaſt. The adjacent country is not fruitful, and produces few of the neceſſaries of life; but it is remarkably rich in gold mines, for which reaſon the town is very populous, and is ſaid to be larger than Baldivia. De Noort ſays, it has a Spaniſh governor, and that they make here woollen ſtuffs and linen cloth. De Laet adds, that there are above 200,000 Indians within the limits of the territory of this town, who pay tribute to the Spaniards, and ſerve them without any reward. Oſorno.

Beſides thoſe already mentioned, there are ſeveral

veral other towns in this province of conſiderable note, ſuch as Villa Rica, about fifty-five miles diſtant from Baldivia towards the north-eaſt, and about ten from the Cordillera. The ſoil about this city is very fruitful, being a clay of which they make good bricks. Moſt of the inhabitants work in wool, and make tolerable cloth. Angol is another conſiderable inland town, about 130 miles north of Baldivia; it ſtands in a large open plain, where the land is productive of all ſorts of grain and fruits.

The province of Cuyo, or Chicuito.

3. The large province of Cuyo, or Chicuito, lies to the eaſt of the Andes, extending from the 30th to the 38th deg. of ſouth latitude; but its breadth as well as its length is very uncertain, the country being ſo remote, and ſeldom frequented by Europeans. Ovalle, who was a native of Chili, and procurator for the Jeſuits of that province, ſays, it is amazing to reflect, when there are only the mountains of the Andes between the provinces of Cuyo and Chili Proper, that they ſhould be ſo different in their qualities, and in every reſpect almoſt diametrically oppoſite to each other, though the latitude is the ſame.

In Cuyo, he ſays, the heats are intolerable in ſummer, while the weather in Chili is very temperate. Thunder, lightning, rain, and tempeſts, are frequent in Cuyo during the ſummer, while in Chili they have ſettled ſerene weather, without any of theſe. In winter the weather in Chili is variable, but never exceſſive cold to the weſtward of the mountains; whereas in

Cuyo

Cuyo they have conſtant ſerene weather in winter and extreme hard froſts, in ſo much that the cattle die in the fields if they are not houſed and fed; and for five or ſix months every year the paſſages of the mountains are ſo locked up by the ſnows, that theſe two provinces have no manner of communication. However, the greateſt part of this country is remarkable for fertility where duly cultivated, which is principally owing to the numerous rivulets of melted ſnow that run down from the circumjacent mountains; its products being corn, wine, and oil, which are excellent in quality, and might be prodigious in quantity, if the country was ſufficiently inhabited, and duly cultivated.

The city of Mendoca, or Mendoza, is the capital of the country, being ſituated in about 68 deg. 25 min. weſt longitude, and 34 deg. 20 min. ſouth latitude, at the foot of the Cordillera, cloſe by the paſs of the mountains that leads into Chili, and at the head of a river which falls into the lake of Guanacache, about ſeventy miles from it, in a ſouth-eaſt direction. This town had its name from Mendoca viceroy of Peru, and was built by Peter Caſtillo. The Jeſuits have a college here, and there are copper mines in the neighbourhood which are very much eſteemed. Mendoza.

2. San Juan de la Frontiera, St John of the frontiers, is about 120 miles diſtant from St Jago, and 100 from Mendoca to the north-eaſt, lying alſo at the head of one of the rivers that run into the lake of San Juan de la Frontiera.

Guanacache. La Martiniere ſays, it is now the chief town of Cuyo, being the moſt populous place in the country; and in the mountains adjacent to it there are very rich ſilver mines.

There are ſome other ſmall towns in this province, but none of any conſideration; however, Ovalle ſays, that, in his time, the number of people and the towns began to increaſe here, becauſe the weſt part of Chili being pretty well peopled, occaſioned many Spaniards to retire to Cuyo.

CHAP. X.

A ſhort account of the iſlands on the coaſts of Chili, with a deſcription of the iſlands of Juan Fernandez.

THE principal iſlands along the coaſt of Chili are Noſtra Senora de Socoro, Chiloe, Mocha, St Mary's, and the iſlands of Juan Fernandez. There are ſeveral other iſlands extending along the ſame coaſt from ſouth latitude 42, to latitude 46, but none of them are well known, or inhabited but by Indians.

1. The iſland of Noſtra Senora de Socoro lies in about 77 deg. weſt longitude, and in 45 deg. ſouth latitude; it is a ſmall uninhabited iſland, but ſo well ſituated for ſhips entering the South ſeas, that Commodore Anſon, when he left the coaſt of Brazil, ordered his captains, as ſoon as they paſſed Cape Horn into the South ſeas, to rendezvous here,

Noſtra Senora de Socoro.

and

and from thence to continue their courſe to Juan Fernandez. The coaſt of this iſland is very craggy and irregular, and appears to be rocky and barren. Whilſt the Commodore was cruiſing here, they obſerved in ſome places ſeveral deep bays, but the entrance into them was generally blocked up by numbers of little iſlands: but as none of his men went on ſhore, we have no particular deſcription of the interior parts of the iſland.

2. The iſland of Chiloe is ſituated between the parallels of 71 deg. 30 min. and 72 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude, and between 41 deg. 50 min. and 44 deg. ſouth latitude, being about 150 miles long and 21 broad. The ſouth and eaſt parts of it are divided from the continent of Chili by a part of the ſea, which is about thirty miles over, and the north part of it is about 136 miles ſouth of Baldivia. The coaſt is ſubject to ſtorms and tempeſtuous weather, eſpecially in March when the winter commences, and prevents ſhips from putting to ſea during that ſeaſon. The iſland of Chiloe.

The face of the country is various, conſiſting of mountains, valleys, woods, ſavannahs, having ſome fine ſprings and rivulets of water.

According to Brewer and Sir John Narborough, it abounded in corn, cattle, and fruit, both European and Indian, as alſo ambergris; but the Spaniſh plantations here were afterwards deſtroyed by the native Indians, who recovered the country, and left the Spaniards little more

than the town of Caſtro, which has been ſo frequently burnt and plundered, that it is now reduced to a miſerable village, whereby the lands lie uncultivated, and appear unfruitful, as the Indians ſow no more than what is juſt ſufficient for furniſhing their families with food.

The only place poſſeſſed now by the Spaniards is the town of Caſtro, built by them in the 1600, when the Chileſians had almoſt driven them from the continent. It is ſituated in the weſt part of the iſland, in 42 deg. 20 min. ſouth latitude. De Laet ſays, it ſtands between two brooks, and has a ſmall caſtle which commands the harbour; but the town has neither walls nor ramparts, and the houſes lie ſcattered about in a very irregular manner.

There are a great number of ſmall iſlands about Chiloe, which all take their names from it.

Mocha. 3. The iſland de la Moca, or Mocha, is not far diſtant from the coaſt, and almoſt oppoſite to the mouth of the river Imperial.

Oliver Noort, who was here in 1600, ſays, this iſland lies four or five leagues out at ſea, is pretty large, with a ridge of hills in the middle, from whence a freſh water river deſcends. It is inhabited by Indians, who retain an implacable enmity againſt the Spaniards, from whoſe cruelty they fled, and peopled this iſland. Sir John Narborough places this iſland in 38 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, and ſays, that the Spaniards told him there was gold

gold there; but that the natives were unwilling to part with it.

4. St Mary's iſland lies almoſt oppoſite to the town of Conception, not many miles from the continent. Frezier ſays, it is low, almoſt plain, and about three quarters of a league in length, from north to ſouth. Sir John Narborough obſerves, that there is good anchoring on the north ſide of this iſland, in a fine ſandy bay. St Mary's.

The Spaniards are maſters of this iſland, and have a fort on it with five guns, where the garriſon live very comfortably, not being moleſted by the Indians, and the country abounds with corn, fruit-trees, roots, ſheep, and hogs.

5. The Spaniards have generally mentioned two iſlands under the name Juan Fernandez, ſtyling them the greater and leſſer. Juan Fernandez.

The iſland of Juan Fernandez Proper, is ſituated about 84 deg. weſt longitude, and in 34 deg. 45 min. ſouth latitude. It is about 330 miles from the continent of Chili; being about fifteen miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and forty in circumference. Governor Pullan ſays, the ſoil of this iſland is indifferent upon the hills, which are overgrown with woods; but its valleys are both fruitful and pleaſant, interſperſed with ſavannahs, or natural meadows, which are capable of great improvements, ſo as to produce every thing agreeable to its climate, which is remarkably healthful and pleaſant.

This iſland was diſcovered by Juan Fernando,

do, in a voyage he made from Lima to Baldivia: who was ſo well pleaſed with its ſituation, ſoil, and climate, that he reſolved to ſettle it; imagining, that its produce might well ſupport four or five hundred families. On his return to Lima, he endeavoured to procure a patent for that purpoſe, but happened to meet with a diſappointment, ſo that it has continued unoccupied ſince.

Governor Pullan, during the war with France and Spain, in the reign of Queen Anne, was conſulted by the miniſtry how it was practicable to prevent the treaſures of Peru and Chili from being brought to Europe by the French and Spaniards; as alſo how to exclude the French from that traffic, whereby they were enabled to maintain a war ſo long againſt the confederates. In conſequence of which, the governor adviſed the miniſtry to ſend a ſquadron of men of war into the South ſeas, to be ſtationed at this iſland. He obſerved that the ſeaſon of the year proper to begin this voyage, was about the beginning of September, in order to their arrival in the South ſeas before the French trade that went that ſeaſon: by this means they could hardly fail of deſtroying all the ſhips bound there that ſeaſon, and perhaps meet with ſome returning home; becauſe they muſt obſerve the ſame time of year, and return by the ſame courſe of theſe ſeas, as they went into them by. The route they always uſe in going there, is by or round Cape Horn, the moſt ſouthern promontory of all America: for ſhips

ſeldom

ſeldom venture through the ſtreights of Magellan, becauſe they find by experience, that for one ſhip which gets through, three are forced back, and loſe their voyage that year, to the ruin of their owners; but having ſufficient ſea-room the other way, they are never expoſed to any ſuch riſk. After they have doubled Cape Horn, they ſteer directly for Juan Fernandez, to refreſh their men and take in freſh water. But what induced the governor to mention the ſettling of this iſland, was the breeding of cattle and cultivating the land, by which means mighty advantages might accrue to the inhabitants; becauſe all the ſhips which paſs the ſtreights of Magellan, or by Cape Horn, conſtantly touch here, on account of their men having by this time contracted the ſcurvy. And though it be far from Britain or any Britiſh colony, yet it was ſo capable of being fortified, that a ſmall charge would ſoon build ſuch works, as would render it impracticable for any people to land there againſt the will of the inhabitants. If this was the caſe, then the Britiſh ſhips would not only have a convenient harbour, and plenty of proviſions, but likewiſe a convenient ſtation for diſtreſſing the Spaniards, and ruining their whole trade in the South ſeas.

Commodore Anſon, during his three months ſtay here, was very careful in directing the roads and coaſts of this iſland to be ſurveyed, and other obſervations to be made, knowing from his own experience, how uſeful theſe materials might prove to any Britiſh veſſels employed

ployed afterwards in thoſe ſeas; and further obſerves, that it is the only commodious place where Britiſh cruiſers can refreſh and recover their men after their paſſage round Cape Horn, and where they may remain for ſome time without alarming the Spaniſh coaſt.

The Commodore arrived here in June 1741. When they firſt deſcried the iſland at eleven or twelve leagues diſtance, it appeared to be a very mountainous place, extremely rugged and irregular: though, when they came nearer the ſhore, they could diſcover, that the rugged precipices, which appeared ſo unpromiſing at a diſtance, were far from barren, being in moſt places covered with woods; and that between them there were every where interſperſed the fineſt valleys, clothed with a moſt beautiful verdure, and watered with numerous ſtreams and caſcades; no valley of any extent being unprovided with its proper rill: which afforded the greateſt pleaſure to the Commodore, as moſt of his people were ſeverely afflicted with the ſcurvy, and were obliged to be ſent on ſhore for their recovery.

The only ſafe anchoring is on the north ſide of the iſland, where there are three bays; but that in the middle, known by the name of Cumberland bay, is the wideſt and deepeſt, and in every reſpect the beſt; for the other two, named the eaſt and weſt bays, are ſcarcely more than good landing-places, where boats may conveniently put their caſks on ſhore.

The northern part of the iſland is compoſed

of

of high rugged hills, many of which are inacceſſible, though generally covered with trees. The Spaniſh priſoners obſerved to the Commodore, that the appearance of the hills in ſome parts of the iſland was like that in the mountains of Chili, where the gold is found, ſo that it is not impoſſible but mines might be diſcovered there.

The trees of which the woods on the northern ſide are compoſed, are moſt of them aromatics, and of many different ſorts; but there are none of them of a ſize to yield any conſiderable timber, except the myrtle trees, which are the largeſt on the iſland; though even theſe will not work to a greater length than forty feet. Here is alſo the pimento-tree, and the cabbage-tree, which generally grows on the precipices, and in no great plenty, each tree yielding only a ſingle cabbage.

Excluſive of a great number of plants of various kinds, almoſt all the vegetables are found here, which are uſually eſteemed to be particularly adapted to the cure of thoſe ſcorbutic diſorders which are contracted by ſalt diet and long voyages. There are great quantities of water-creſſes, and purſlain, with excellent wild ſorrel, turnips, and Sicilian radiſhes, *&c.*

The excellence of the climate, and the looſeneſs of the ſoil, render the place extremely proper for vegetation; for if the ground is any where accidentally turned up, it is immediately overgrown with turnips, *&c.* Lord Anſon, therefore, having with him garden-ſeeds of all

kinds, and ſtones of different ſorts of fruit, ſowed lettuces and other garden-plants, for the better accommodation of his countrymen, who ſhould touch here again. He alſo ſet in the woods a great variety of plumb, apricot, and peach ſtones.

Former writers have related, that this iſland abounded with goats, and their accounts are not to be doubted; as this place was the uſual reſort for bucaneers and privateers in thoſe ſeas. There are two inſtances to confirm this; one of a Muſquito Indian, and the other of Alexander Selkirk a Scotſman, who were left here by their reſpective ſhips, lived alone upon the iſland, and conſequently were no ſtrangers to its produce. Selkirk, who was the laſt, after a ſtay of near five years, was taken off the place by the Duke and Ducheſs privateers of Briſtol, in 1709; whoſe manner of life, during his ſolitude, was, in moſt particulars, very remarkable; and he tells us, among other things, that, as often as he caught more goats than he wanted, he ſometimes marked their ears, and let them go; which was found to be true, when Anſon was here; for his men caught ſeveral of theſe animals marked in this manner. But the goats are now much diminiſhed, through the policy of the Spaniards, who were apprized of the advantages which the bucaneers drew from the proviſions of goat-fleſh, and therefore endeavoured to extirpate the breed, to deprive their enemies of this relief. For which purpoſe, they have put on ſhore great numbers of large

dogs,

dogs, who have deſtroyed all the goats in the acceſſible parts of the iſland.

Along the ſhore are plenty of fiſh, of various kinds, and ſea-lions which are of the amphibious kind, bearing ſome reſemblance to ſeals, which are found here alſo in great abundance.

The iſland of Moſa Fuero, or little Fernandez, is about twenty-two leagues to the weſt of the former, and is near four miles in length. It had been repreſented by former navigators, as a barren rock; but, while Commodore Anſon was at Juan Fernandez, he was joined by the Glouceſter commanded by Captain Mitchell, who acquainted the Commodore, that he had been forced by the winds as far as this iſland; and aſſured him, that it was almoſt covered with trees and verdure, and appeared to be a very beautiful iſland. Little Fernandez.

In conſequence of this intelligence, the Commodore ſent the Trial ſloop to examine it, which was accordingly done; the Trial ſloop found, that it bore from the greater Juan Fernandez, weſt by ſouth, and that it was a much larger and better ſpot than had been generally reported; that it was covered with trees, and that there were ſeveral fine falls of water running down its ſides into the ſea. They alſo found that there was a place where a ſhip might come to an anchor on the north ſide of it, though the anchorage is inconvenient; for the bank extends but a little way, is ſteep, and has very deep water upon it: ſo that ſhips muſt come to an-

chor very near the ſhore, and there lie expoſed to all the winds but a ſoutherly one.

This place at preſent has one advantage beyond the iſland of Fernandez Proper; for it abounds with goats, which have not been accuſtomed to be diſturbed, and are nowiſe ſhy or apprehenſive of danger till they have been frequently fired at.

CHAP. XI.

A general deſcription of Paraguay, or Rio-de-la-Plata. The extent and nature of the country; with ſome account of the Indians. How the Portugueſe firſt invaded this country, under Alexius Garcia. The diſcoveries made here by Sebaſtian Cabot. The Spaniards made their firſt ſettlements in this country under Mendoza, &c. Remarks on the Jeſuits of Paraguay, the ſix diſtricts, or ſubdiviſions of this extenſive province.

THis large country received its name from the river Plata, which riſes near the city of that name in Peru, and runs to the ſouth-eaſt through this country. It is bounded on the north by part of Brazil, the land of the Amazons, and part of Peru; on the eaſt by part of Brazil and the ocean; on the ſouth by Chili and Terra Magellanica; and on the weſt by part of Peru and part of Chili. Its utmoſt northern boundaries are generally placed in 12 deg. of ſouth latitude, beyond the town of Por-

to

to de los Reyes, which is ſituated at the top of the lake Xarayes; and the ſouthern borders are commonly ſet down in 35 deg. 30 min. ſo that it is about 1400 miles in length. It alſo extends from about the 48th to the 66th deg. of weſt longitude, in the broadeſt part, which is from the Andes to the mouth of the river of St Francis; ſo that its greateſt breadth is about 1080 miles, though not above half that number on the ſouthern extremity, where it is narroweſt. Father Sepp ſays, that this country exceeds Germany, France, Italy, and the Netherlands put together. The principal river in this country is the Rio-de-la-Plata, which riſes in Peru in 20 deg. ſouth latitude; it firſt runs to the eaſtward, till joined by the great river of Paraguay, which riſes in the heart of the country in ſouth latitude 16, and unites with the former a little before the city of Aſſumption in ſouth latitude 25. About 100 miles lower, they are joined by the great river Parana; beſides, there are many other rivers both from the eaſt and weſt, which concur in forming ſo great a collection of water, and roll in conjunction towards the ſea, where it diſcharges itſelf near the town of Buenos Ayres, in 35 deg. ſouth latitude, being about ninety miles broad.

As this country is of ſo vaſt an extent on both ſides, it muſt be ſuppoſed to have a great variety of climates, ſoils, products, and inhabitants, the farther particulars of all which will be given when deſcribing the ſeveral provinces. In the mean time we ſhall ſubjoin a general account

of

of the whole. The land is, generally ſpeaking, very rich and fruitful, producing plenty of wheat and other European grain, ſome vines, but chiefly abounds in ſugar-canes: here are in ſome places whole woods of peaches, almonds, figs, *&c.* planted from the bare kernels. It is at preſent ſo well ſtocked with all ſorts of cattle, ſmall and large, that they run in a manner wild, the inhabitants killing them only for their hides and tallow, and let the fleſh rot on the ground. Here are alſo great variety of other beaſts, ſuch as wild and tame horſes and mules; the former are ſuffered to run wild in the woods, and of the latter they furniſh Peru and other places with vaſt numbers annually. Here are three ſorts of deer; one kind almoſt as big as cows, with very large horns, and ranging chiefly among the flags and watery grounds; another ſort ſtill bigger, which rove among the flat grounds; and a third ſort, which are ſmall, and harbour chiefly in the mountains. In the woods are plenty of voracious animals, ſuch as lions, tygers, leopards, foxes, *&c.* Here are alſo ſnakes of a monſtrous ſize; and the rivers breed plenty of crocodiles and alligators, which are ſaid to be very harmleſs, and their fleſh good eating.

That part of the country which lies to the weſt of the river Paraguay, conſiſts of large plain lands, extending about 750 miles in length, without any trees, or any thing that looks like timber; but in the country to the eaſt of that river, which borders on Brazil, there is a variety of hills and valleys, of woods and champaign.

Thoſe

Thoſe parts which lie about and to the north of the tropic of Capricorn, have annually very heavy raïns, ſtorms, and tempeſts, when the ſun is vertical, in November and December. At this time all the flat country is overflowed, their ciſterns and reſervoirs of water being repleniſhed, which ſerves them the reſt of the year till the rains return; theſe rains moiſten their lands, and render them fruitful in grain and fruits.

But it is directly contrary in that part of the country which lies ſouth of the tropic; for it is ſummer there in November, December, and January; when the rivers which riſe within the tropics ſwell after the rains are fallen, overflowing their banks as they paſs through the ſouthern parts of the country, which they enrich with a great fertility.

The Indians of Paraguay are repreſented as a brave people, having defeated ſeveral conſiderable bodies of Spaniards, when they firſt invaded their country. It coſt the Spaniards ſeveral years work before they could fix themſelves even in the plains, and the natives defended themſelves ſo well in the woods and mountains to the eaſtward of the river Uragua, that they were never ſubdued, till the Jeſuits found means to inſinuate themſelves into their good opinion, and brought them into a kind of ſubmiſſion by the force of flattery, and without the leaſt compulſion of arms, where theſe divines live like ſovereign princes, and have founded a new kind of government that never before exiſted in the world,

world, which will be more particularly repre-
fented afterwards.

The firſt adventurer who penetrated into this country was Alexius Garcia, a Portugueſe, who was ſent upon that enterpriſe by the governor of Brazil in the year 1524; when he marched acroſs La Plata, as far as the borders of Peru, where he amaſſed a great quantity of plate, but was cut off by the Indians on his return, with moſt of his men; a party was alſo ſent to ſupport him, who ſhared the ſame fate.

Sebaſtian Cabot (who diſcovered North America for King Henry VII. but afterwards went to Spain, where he was made chief pilot of the kingdom, and highly careſſed, to prevent his engaging with any other court) was employed in 1526 by the Emperor Charles V. to make a farther diſcovery of South America. He entered the mouth of the river Plate, (which was firſt diſcovered by John Diaz de Solis), ſailed up that river as far as the place where Garcia was defeated, and met with the plate he had accumulated on the confines of Peru, which he purchaſed of the natives for an inconſiderable value, and concluded he had made an important diſcovery, as he apprehended this treaſure to be the product of Paraguay. Accordingly he erected a fort where the town of Aſſumption now ſtands; after which he detached Alvara Ramon with one of his ſhips to ſail up the river Uragua, and get farther intelligence of the mines which he imagined were to be found near

the

the banks of that river; but Ramon and his people were cut off by the natives.

When Cabot had made ſome further diſcoveries of the country, he ſent Ferdinand Calderon and George Barlow with intelligence thereof to Spain, who delivered their diſpatches to the Emperor at Toledo about the end of September 1527. Upon this advice his Imperial Majeſty offered the merchants, who had contributed towards the expenſe of this voyage, that they might continue the expedition, and ſhare in the profits, which they refuſed; wherefore his Majeſty took it all upon himſelf; but though the conſequence of maintaining a diſcovery 600 miles in length was ſo conſiderable a thing, yet nothing was done for a long time upon this occaſion. However, Cabot continued in expectation of ſupplies for the ſpace of five years, when his patience was exhauſted, and he returned to Spain in one ſhip which he had ſaved, and all the men that were left alive. He repaired immediately to court, and informed the Emperor of the nature of his expedition, the ſubſtance of his relation being as follows: That the chief race of the Indians in thoſe parts was that of the Guaramies, a warlike, treacherous, and imperious people, who called all the other Indians *ſlaves*, that could not ſpeak their language, continually waging war on them, wherein they were extremely bloody and cruel, killing all they could, without taking any priſoners: the territory of the city de la Plata was inhabited by this nation, and their country extend-

ed about 1500 miles, from whence they invaded Peru, and returned home in a victorious manner; but Cabot concluded a treaty of peace with thoſe people, and eſtabliſhed the colony of San Eſpiritus; got information of them concerning the country, as alſo of the gold and ſilver of Peru, from whence the river was called *de la Plata*, or Plate

Cabot found that credit was the more readily given to this report, as he had brought home a very conſiderable quantity of plate; upon which ſeveral of the beſt families in Spain ſolicited the court to be ſent on an expedition to Paraguay; in conſequence of which, a body of 2200 land-men, beſides marines, were embarked for the river of Plate, among whom were thirty heirs of noble families, and the whole was commanded by Don Pedro de Mendoza, who arrived at the mouth of the river, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres in 1535: but this was not done without great oppoſition from the natives, who defeated ſeveral bodies of Spaniards; after which Mendoza returned to Spain, leaving Ogola his deputy-governor, with part of the troops, who afterwards abandoned Buenos Ayres, and returned to the fort of Aſſumption.

The governor Alvaro-Nunez-Cabeza de Vaca afterwards made farther diſcoveries; planted colonies as far as the north of Tucuman; rebuilt Buenos Ayres, and founded ſome other towns near the mouth of the river Plate.

Francis de Acquire was detached with 200 men

men from Chili in 1553, by Baldivia, when he built the city of St Jago. John Gomes Zarita was alſo ſent from Chili to La Plata with another body of troops in 1555, when he built the town of Cordova, and made an entire conqueſt of all the country as far as the river Paraguay; but the provinces to the eaſt of that river, inſtead of being conquered by the force of the Spaniards, were reduced by the artifice of the miſſionaries, in return for which ſervice the crown of Spain conferred the property of that country upon thoſe fathers, who have there eſtabliſhed for themſelves a temporal dominion.

The unconquered Indians are governed by their caciques; but that part of the country which has been ſubjected to the dominion of Spain, is under the direction of two Spaniſh governors, one of them having his reſidence at St Jago, in the diſtrict of Tucuman, and the other at the town of Aſſumption, though both of them are under the ſuperintendency of the viceroy of Peru; and they have alſo ſub-governors in every diſtrict.

This extenſive country, which generally goes under the name of *Paraguay*, contains the following diſtricts or provinces, *viz.*

1. Tucuman on the weſt. 2. Rio de la Plata on the ſouth. 3. Uraguay. 4. Parana. 5. Guayra; theſe three lie to the eaſt of the river Plate. And, 6. Paraguay Proper on the north.

CHAP. XII.

A brief account of the provinces of Tucuman and Rio de la Plata; their principal towns, trade, &c. but more particularly of the commerce of Buenos Ayres, and of the Aſſiento treaty for furniſhing it with negroes. The great importance of that ſettlement were it annexed to the Britiſh territories.

The province of Tucuman.

1. THE large province of Tucuman lies in the middle between Chili and Paraguay. It is not eaſy exactly to ſtate its boundaries, eſpecially towards the north; however, it is ſaid to extend from ſouth latitude 24 to 34 deg. *viz.* from Chaco on the north to Cuyo and the territory of the Pampas on the ſouth, being ten degrees, or 690 miles. It is bounded on the eaſt by Paraguay Proper and Rio de la Plata, and on the weſt by the imperial biſhopric of St Jago in Chili. Its greateſt extent from weſt to eaſt is about 7 deg. that is, from weſt longitude 62 to 69. It lies for the moſt part in a temperate and healthy climate; and although no mines of gold or ſilver have been hitherto diſcovered in it, yet the country is both rich and well cultivated, producing excellent corn, and other neceſſary commodities, with vaſt herds of horſes and cattle.

The principal towns in this province are,

1. St Jago del Eſtero the capital, and an epiſcopal

ſcopal ſee, is ſituated in 65 deg. of weſt longitude, and 27 deg. 40 min. ſouth latitude, on the banks of the Dolce, or ſweet river, which is here pretty large and navigable, affording both plenty and variety of fiſh. However, the town is but ſmall, not exceeding 300 houſes, or 500 families, and is quite deſtitute of wall, ditch, or any other defence. St Jago del Eſtero.

The adjacent country is rich, producing plenty of wheat, rice, and barley, as likewiſe fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially figs and raiſins. The foreſts afford plenty of game, but are infeſted with tygers and other voracious animals, particularly one ſort, called *Guanacos*, which are as large as common horſes, with long necks, ſmall heads, and ſhort tails, in whoſe maw is found the occidental bezoar.

The town has four churches, the cathedral, that of the Jeſuits, and two more belonging to other monaſteries. The inquiſitor, or governor of this province, who is a ſecular prieſt, has his reſidence here, and nominates his ſubſtitute officers in the other parts of the country.

The town is reported to lie almoſt in the mid-way between the mines of Potoſi and Buenos Ayres; the plate is brought here from the former on the backs of mules, becauſe of the unevenneſs of the country, but from St Jago to Buenos Ayres it is carried in waggons over one continued plain, where there are neither hills nor woods to be diſcovered.

2. San Miguel, or St Michael, was the firſt town

town the Spaniards founded in this country, and is pleaſantly ſituated on a fertile plain, near the banks of a ſmall river that falls into the Rio Dolce near St Jago, from which it is diſtant about fifty-four miles, in a north-weſt direction. The productions of the neighbouring country are the ſame with that of St Jago, and not inferior in fertility. The air here is reckoned one of the ſweeteſt and moſt ſalubrious in all Paraguay, which makes the country well inhabited, and ſtored with all the conveniencies of life.

San Miguel.

3. Salta, or Lerma, ſtands on a ſmall river, which ſoon after falls into a neighbouring lake. It is principally inhabited by Spaniards, to whom the town and country adjacent belong, having about 400 houſes, and five or ſix churches or monaſteries. Salta is a place of great reſort, on account of the great quantity of corn, meal, wine, cattle, tallow, ſalt meat, and other ſuch commodities, which are ſent from thence into Peru, and other places.

Salta.

4. Cordova lies about 300 miles ſouth of St Jago del Eſtero, and 480 north-weſt from Buenos Ayres. It is a very conſiderable town, but ſituated on a marſhy, though rich and fertile ſoil, in 63 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude, and 31 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, in a temperate healthy climate, with equal winter and ſummer, all the territory about it being full of cattle, and abounding with luxuriant paſtures. It produces plenty of corn, fruits,

Cordova.

fruits, and other neceſſaries, and has ſeveral excellent ſalt-pits; ſo that the town carries on a great trade in thoſe commodities, with Peru eſpecially, as it lies on the road to Buenos Ayres, taking gold and ſilver in return for its merchandiſe. The inhabitants are Spaniards, who are chiefly employed in cultivating the ground, and manufacturing of cotton cloth, which they ſend to Potoſi.

There are many other towns in this province, which are ſaid to be daily increaſing in number of inhabitants and extent of trade.

2. Rio de la Plata, or La Plata Proper, is ſo called from the remarkable river of the ſame name, along whoſe banks it extends itſelf on each ſide, about 600 miles in length from north to ſouth, and about 300 where broadeſt from eaſt to weſt; being bounded on the north by Chaco, Paraguay Proper, and Parana; on the eaſt by that of Uraguay; on the ſouth by the territory of Pampas, and Terra Magellanica; and on the weſt by Tucuman. The province of La Plata.

The principal towns here are,

1. The town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called from its pleaſant and healthy ſituation, being ſituated in 57 deg. weſt longitude, and 35 deg. 25 min. ſouth latitude, upon a gentle riſing ground, upwards of 60 miles from the mouth of the river Plate, and upon the ſouth ſide of it, that river being here ſeven leagues wide, and navigable by any ſhip ſixty leagues above the town, but no farther on ac- Buenos Ayres.

count

count of a great cataract. The houſes of this city, which were formerly of mud walls thatched with ſtraw, and very low, are now much improved, ſome being of chalk, and others of brick, having one ſtory beſides the ground-floor, and moſt of them tiled. The cathedral is a ſpacious and elegant ſtructure. The chapter is compoſed of the biſhop, dean, archdeacon, and two canons. Here are ſeveral convents, and a royal chapel in the caſtle where the governor reſides. The principal ſquare is very large, and built near a little river; like moſt towns ſituated on rivers, its breadth is not proportioned to its length. The front anſwering to the ſquare is the caſtle where the governor conſtantly reſides, and with the other forts has 1000 regular troops. The number of the houſes are about 4000. There is a ſmall church at the farther end of the city for the Indians. With regard to the œconomical government and magiſtracy, it correſponds with the other places in South America under the Spaniſh juriſdiction. The climate here is very little different from that of Spain; there are indeed violent tempeſts of winds and rains, accompanied with ſuch dreadful thunders and lightnings, as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation; but in ſummer the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. The city is ſurrounded by a ſpacious and pleaſant country, free from any obſtruction to the ſight; and from thoſe delightful plains the inhabitants

are furniſhed with ſuch plenty of cattle, that there is no place in the univerſe where meat is better or cheaper. It is alſo fertile in all ſorts of grain and fruits, and would be ſtill more ſo if duly cultivated; but the people are exceſſive indolent, and content themſelves with what nature produces without labour. It formerly bore very excellent vines, from which they made ſeveral ſorts of excellent wines, beſides the vaſt quantities of grapes they dried for uſe.

Within the government of Buenos Ayres are two other conſiderable cities, beſides leſſer ones. The firſt is Santa Fee, about 210 miles to the north-weſt of Buenos Ayres, in ſouth latitude 31 deg. 40 min. at the conflux of the rivers Salado and Paraguay; all the territory quite down to Buenos Ayres on each ſide of the river, being very delightful and rich in all productions. The town is built of brick, and was founded by the Spaniards for the defence of the rich mines of gold and ſilver which are in the neighbourhood of this ſettlement, though the Spaniards are averſe to the opening of them, for fear they ſhould encourage ſome of their enemies to come and take poſſeſſion of their treaſure.

Santa Fee.

Corrientes is the next town in courſe up the river, and ſtands about eighty leagues higher; being built by the Spaniards at the confluence of the Parana and Paraguay; but it is ſo ſmall and inconſiderable, that it nowiſe anſwers the dignity of its ſituation, between theſe two remarkable rivers.

Corrientes.

The extenſive commerce of Buenos Ayres.

However, the commerce of Buenos Ayres is very extenſive, and indeed ſuch a commerce as no other port in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies can boaſt; for hither come from the moſt diſtant provinces in the Spaniſh empire, the moſt valuable commodities, in order to be exchanged for European goods; ſuch as Vigonia wool from Peru, copper from Coquimbo, gold from Chili, and ſilver from Potoſi; from the towns of Corrientes and Paraguay, are brought hither the fineſt tobacco, ſugars, cotton, thread, yellow wax, and cotton cloth, moſt of which is uſed at Buenos Ayres by the ſlaves and other domeſtics; and from Paraguay, the herb ſo called and ſo highly valued; being a kind of tea drank all over South America by the better ſort, of which one branch is computed to amount to a million of pieces of eight, all paid in goods, no money being allowed to paſs here. Theſe goods are moſtly European, and conſiſt in knives, guns, ſciſſars, ribands, taffaties, ſilk ſtockings, Engliſh hats, Engliſh bays and coarſe cloth: all theſe merchandiſes are carried through this vaſt extent of country, in little waggons, though between Corrientes and this place there are no leſs than ſix great rivers, in paſſing which, the cattle are trained to ſwim, and goods are paſſed over in ſloats. The commerce between Peru and Buenos Ayres is chiefly for cattle and mules; ſuch as are concerned in the former, go firſt to the governor, and aſk his leave to drive a herd of cattle into Peru, which is never refu-

ſed

ſed when backed by a preſent of ſome thouſand pieces of eight. The next thing is to take 30 or 40,000 wild cows out of the King's paſtures, which is performed by perſons who follow that buſineſs for a livelihood, and who deliver theſe creatures at about two or three pieces of eight, or nine ſhillings Sterling per head. At that rate 30,000 cattle may come to near 100,000 pieces of eight, and at market may poſſibly bring 300,000 pieces. The commerce of mules is carried on by factors, which are ſent by the merchants of Peru, who obtain the governor's licence by a conſiderable preſent; and then addreſs themſelves to the natives and inhabitants, ſpecifying the number and times when they ſhall be delivered. At the appointed times they mark and ſtamp them with a hot iron on the ſhoulders, being from that time to be maintained at their expenſe. Theſe coſt about three or four pieces of eight each, and are driven by pretty quick jouneys to Salta, about two thirds of the way to Potoſi. There they winter, and are fatted with great care. When they are in full fleſh, they carry them to Potoſi, where they are ſold for from ſeven to nine pieces of eight each; but ſuch as are carried farther into the country, bring forty or fifty pieces of eight, and ſometimes come to a hundred. The trade carried on betwixt Buenos Ayres and Europe ſhould be only by the regiſter-ſhips from Spain; but beſides this, there is carried on a contraband trade to England and Spain; and there is another with the Portugueſe who poſſeſs the oppoſite

ſhore of Rio-de-la-Plata, by means of little veſſels, under cover of ſending their own commodities, but really European goods.

Beſides the different branches of trade carried on here, already mentioned, there was ſtill another very conſiderable article, namely, the importation of negro ſlaves, which was done by other nations in the following manner.

The firſt aſſiento, or farm, was a treaty, or contract made in 1702, between the King of Spain, and the French Guinea company, for furniſhing the Spaniſh dominions in South America with negro ſlaves: whereby the compliment of negroes was to be 3800 yearly, during the continuance of the war about the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, and 4800 in time of peace; the duty being fixed at thirty-three piaſters and one third, or L. 5 : 19 : $5\frac{1}{4}$ Sterling for every negro. But, by the treaty of Utrecht, the French ceded the aſſiento treaty to the Engliſh, who entered into a treaty with the Spaniards, for the furniſhing of negroes, which was to commence the 1ſt of May 1713, and terminate in May 1743. The Engliſh South-ſea company undertook to ſupply Spaniſh America yearly with 4800 negroes, for which the ſame duty was to be paid, as had been ſettled by the French. The forty-ſecond article of this treaty, which was the laſt and moſt conſiderable of all, was not included in the treaty with the French; for this article permitted the Engliſh aſſientiſts to ſend into the ports of Spaniſh America, every year the treaty was to ſubſiſt,

The aſſiento treaty.

ſiſt, a ſhip of 500 tuns, laden with the ſame commodities the Spaniards uſually ſend there; with a licence to vend the ſame, conjointly with them, at the fairs of Porto-Bello and Vera Cruz; which was a conceſſion diametrically oppoſite to the ancient policy, and uſual jealouſy of the Spaniards, with regard to their American commerce. By ſome additional articles, the Engliſh were alſo allowed to ſend their ſhip yearly, though the flota, or Spaniſh galleons ſhould not ſail to America; that the firſt ten years this veſſel might carry 650 tuns; as alſo that the commodities which might remain after the ſale of the negroes, ſhould be ſent to Europe, after the ſlaves had been landed at Buenos Ayres: and, if their deſtination was to Porto-Bello, Vera Cruz, Carthagena, and other parts of Spaniſh America, they ſhould be tranſmitted to the Antilles, and none of them to the South ſea. However, on the commencement of the laſt war with Spain in 1739, the Engliſh aſſientiſts were deprived of four years enjoyment of their trade; which was afterwards entirely relinquiſhed, to the great prejudice of the company.

A very conſiderable part of the gold and ſilver of Peru and Chili is exported from Buenos Ayres to Europe; as alſo great quantities of hides and tallow, with ſuch other commodities as are furniſhed by this part of America: for the importance of this place principally conſiſts in its convenient ſituation for commerce; whereby the moſt valuable commodities, in the

moſt

moſt diſtant provinces of the Spaniſh empire, are brought here to be exchanged for European goods.

From the preceding account of this place, we may eaſily form a judgment of its vaſt importance. It is not only remarkable for an excellent climate, and luxuriant ſoil, but alſo one of the beſt ſituations in all South America for trade and commerce: the navigation to it is direct and uninterrupted; the great river of Plate, and its copious tributaries lay open the interior parts of the country, which renders a free and eaſy communication between Buenos Ayres and all the adjacent country, even to the diſtance of many hundred miles.

In the beginning of the laſt Spaniſh war, the judicious Governor Pulleyn publiſhed a pamphlet, under the title of a propoſal for humbling Spain: in which he urged the neceſſity, and the great advantages that would attend the taking and retaining of Buenos Ayres: for, as the governor juſtly obſerved, by the taking of this place, and making good ſettlements in its neighbourhood, we ſhould have the Spaniards at our mercy, and then it would be in our power to chaſtiſe them upon any juſt offence, or violation of treaties. Had this project been carried into execution, we ſhould have reaped the advantages of it long before now, and would have been of the greateſt conſequence to us at preſent.

As the town has no regular fortifications, at leaſt no forts of any ſtrength, and thoſe but poorly garriſoned,

garriſoned, a ſmall armament with a few regular troops would ſoon reduce the place; and as the Spaniards have no maritime force here, it would be eaſy to keep the poſſeſſion, which (if right improved) would be attended with the following advantages of Great Britain.

1. By the Britiſh being in poſſeſſion of this town, it would not only deprive the Spaniards of the beſt port they have on the eaſtern ſhore of South America, but alſo weaken their trade and ſhipping, and humble their unbounded pride.

2. It would not only be an introduction for us into South America, from which we have been formerly excluded, but would open to us new ſources of wealth and commerce. For, by being ſettled here, we would have an opportunity of trading not only in the neighbouring provinces, but alſo for penetrating into the gold and ſilver mines of Peru and Chili, and thereby come in for a ſhare of theſe valuable metals.

3. It would give us an opportunity of making ſettlements to the ſouthward of the river Plate, in that extenſive, though uninhabited country, of Patagonia or Terra Magellanica, which is generally repreſented as a fruitful and agreeable territory, abounding with innumerable herds of cattle, and if peopled with induſtrious inhabitants, might, through proceſs of time, become a valuable colony.

4. By being ſettled in this province, it would give us an opportunity of carrying on a moſt beneficial

beneficial and lucrative trade with our allies the Portugueſe in the Brazils; and as we are joined in confederacy with that nation againſt the Spaniards, the Brazilians may be of great uſe to us at preſent in aſſiſting at the reduction of Buenos Ayres, which lies in their neighbourhood.

5. By our ſettling here, it would not only increaſe the number of our colonies, enlarge the number of our ſubjects, extend our commerce; but would alſo prodigiouſly augment our navigation and ſailors, and exhauſt immenſe quantities of our manufactures, and render us ſtill more and more formidable to our aſpiring foes.

CHAP. XIII.

The provinces of Uraguay, Parana, and Guayra; their principal towns, rivers, and trade, &c.

3. THE province of Uraguay is bounded by Parana on the north; by the river Plate on the weſt and ſouth; and on the eaſt by part of Brazil. Its length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt is 630 miles, and its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt about 390, but much narrower in other parts. Formerly there were many conſiderable towns in this province, ſuch as Los Reyes, Aſſumption, Conception, St Thomas, with many others, which were built by the Spaniards, but have ſince been abandoned, and gone moſtly to ruin.

The province of Uraguay.

4. The

4. The province of Parana, ſo called from the great river of the ſame name, which is its ſouthern boundary, where it divides it from Uraguay: it is alſo bounded by Guayra and Paraguay Proper on the north; on the eaſt by Brazil; and by La Plata Proper on the weſt. Its length, as far as has been diſcovered, is computed to be about 400 miles, though great parts of it are ſtill unknown; and the breadth in ſome places is about 340 miles. The province of Parana.

The towns belonging to this diſtrict, lay formerly on the banks of the Parana, but very little is known concerning theſe except their names and ſituation.

5. The province of Guayra is bounded by Paraguay Proper on the north; by Brazil on the eaſt, by Parana on the ſouth, and by the river Paraguay on the weſt. Its greateſt extenſion from eaſt to weſt, is computed about 450 miles, and near the ſame breadth from north to ſouth. The tropic of Capricorn cuts it almoſt in two equal parts, ſo that its climate muſt be very hot; though it is moiſt on account of the great dews and rains, which makes it very fruitful in proviſions as well as diſeaſes; inſomuch that, on account of the latter, ſome have repreſented it as a fitter habitation for wild beaſts than human creatures. However, we are informed, that it was tolerably well peopled at the firſt coming of the Spaniards; which is farther confirmed by the number of towns and villages, that have been The province of Guayra.

ſince deſerted or deſtroyed, either by the ſickneſs of the inhabitants, or by the inhumanity of the Brazilian Portugueſe, who either deſtroyed the people, or obliged them to quit their habitations. The town of Guaray Cividad is ſituated in 24 deg. ſouth latitude; St Xavier is about 300 miles to the eaſtward, on the confines of Brazil: but the inhabitants of theſe towns are generally poor, having neither plenty of bread nor fleſh, except that of the wild beaſts which they deſtroy.

CHAP. XIV.

An account of the territory of the Jeſuits in Paraguay Proper; their manner of ſettling and governing it; the obedience of the people.

6. PAraguay Proper is the moſt northern diſtrict, being bounded on the north by the great country of the Amazons, on the eaſt by the province of Guayra, on the ſouth by thoſe of Parana and La Plata, and on the weſt by part of Peru and Tucuman; but it is neceſſary to obſerve, that its weſtern and northern limits are far from being certain.

Paraguay Proper.

The chief town of this province is Aſſumption, which ſtands on the eaſtern banks of the river of its name, being ſituated in 59 deg. 35 min. weſt longitude, and 24 deg. 47 min. ſouth latitude, about 150 miles above the confluence of the Paraguay and Parana, where the former

former begins to be called the *Rio de la Plata.* It was built by the Spaniards in 1538, being remarkable for its healthy and advantageous ſituation, as well as for the number of its inhabitants, containing at leaſt 400 families of Spaniards, and ſeveral thouſands of meſtizoes and mulattoes. The adjacent country is exceeding rich and fruitful, producing plenty of grain and variety of fruits, not only of thoſe natural to the country, but thoſe which have been tranſported hither from Spain; and the air is ſo temperate, that the trees are clothed with a perennial and delightful verdure. There are likewiſe very noble and luxuriant paſtures in the circumjacent plains, on which are bred very numerous herds of cattle; ſo that there is ſuch an extraordinary plenty of proviſions in the town, as to make the natives, blacks, and others, ambitious of living in it.

There are many towns and villages on both ſides of the river, ſome of which are very populous and extremely magnificent.

Before I leave this country of Paraguay, I muſt beg leave to ſay ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth which the Jeſuits have erected in this country.

About the middle of the laſt century theſe fathers repreſented to the court of Madrid, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in

The riſe and progreſs of the Jeſuits in Paraguay.

the Indians where-ever they came. They further inſinuated, that if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all theſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic Majeſty's obedience without expenſe, and without force. This remonſtrance was liſtened to with attention; the ſphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniard to enter into this pale without licence from the fathers. They on their part agreed to pay a certain capitation-tax in proportion to their flock, and to ſend a certain number of men to the King's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 150 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle, and they united them into a little township. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they have built a ſuperſtructure which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power at the ſame time, that it has brought ſo much envy and jealouſy upon their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and with ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they

mollified

mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations, fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued the moſt averſe to government. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes of people to embrace their religion, and to ſubmit to their government; and when they had ſubmitted, the Jeſuits left nothing undone that could conduce to their remaining in this ſubjection, or that could tend to increaſe their number to the degree requiſite for a well-ordered and potent ſociety, and their labours were attended with amazing ſucceſs.

This miſſion gradually increaſed till it attained its preſent extent, which comprehends at leaſt 300,000 families, who are moſt ſubſervient to the fathers, and pay them all the reverence that can be ſhewn to mortals. They live in towns, are regularly clad, they labour in agriculture, and carry on manufactures; ſome of them aſpire even to the elegant arts.

Theſe Indians are divided into forty-two pariſhes, all on the banks of the river Paraguay and Parana, and none above thirty miles diſtance from another. In each pariſh there is a Jeſuit, who is ſupreme in all cauſes, as well civil as eccleſiaſtical, from whoſe deciſion there lies no appeal. By him their caciques or chief officers are nominated, as alſo all inferior ones; and even their military commanders receive their orders from him. Nothing can be better contrived than the regulations under which they live. Every family hath its proportion of land and labour. Induſtry is common to all, yet

wealth

wealth is attained by none; the product of their harveſt is carried into the ſociety's magazines, whence the fathers diſpenſe whatever to them appears neceſſary to every family according to its degree. The ſurplus, which is very conſiderable, ſaid to amount to about 800,000 pounds Sterling, is ſent to Cordova or Santa Fee, there being at each place a procurator-general, who takes care of what belongs to the ſociety, and, as occaſion offers, tranſports their wealth into Europe.

It is impoſſible to imagine any thing in the Indies more regular, or more magnificent than their pariſh-churches. They are capacious, well built, and moſt elegantly furniſhed; gilding and paintings ſtrike the eye on every ſide, and all the ſacred utenſils are of gold and ſilver, nay, in many of them they are decorated with emeralds, and other precious ſtones; ſo that divine ſervice is celebrated with the moſt ſolemn ſplendour. On one of the high altars are tribunals for the civil magiſtrate, on the other ſide are like conveniencies for military officers. As to the father himſelf, his buſineſs is to officiate, which he does twice a-day with the utmoſt gravity. Their muſic, both vocal and inſtrumental, is far from being contemptible, the people having naturally a genius for that ſcience, which the fathers have taken care to cultivate. The dwelling, or rather palace, of this ſpiritual prince is like the church, extremely grand for the country in which we find it. It conſiſts of various apartments, ſuited to the various functions

of

of its maſter. In the morning he gives audience to ſuch as have any public buſineſs with him; about noon he hears confeſſions, in which he is very exact, that being the principal pillar on which his ſovereignty reſts; in the afternoon he walks abroad, gives directions, inſpects the public and private affairs of his pariſh; in the evening he catechiſes, explains the principles of the Chriſtian religion, and diſcourſes on moral ſubjects to ſuch as attend him, by rotation. In ſome parts of his conduct he is extremely modeſt and praiſe-worthy, in others not a little lofty and aſſuming. To the firſt we refer his ſimple manner of living, faring coarſely, ſleeping moderately, and uſing few or no diverſions, if we except ſuch recreations as he allows to his people. We are led to accuſe him of the latter, by obſerving the mighty diſtance at which he keeps his people, cauſing even their magiſtrates to be corrected before him with ſtripes, and allowing the beſt man in the pariſh to kiſs his ſleeve, as the higheſt honour he is to hope for: to which may be added, their deſtroying all the notions of property; for (except the father himſelf) there is no body who poſſeſſes any thing which he can call his own; ſo that he exerciſes in the higheſt ſenſe both the office of a prieſt and of a king.

There is an annual meeting of all the fathers, who then confer on the methods neceſſary to be taken for promoting the common concerns of the miſſion, for making new laws, or aboliſhing old ones, as the neceſſity of affairs may require.

quire. This is the ſupreme council, over which, for ought that appears, neither his Catholic Majeſty, nor the Pope himſelf has any power. The firſt they have perſuaded, that all intercourſe between the Indians and the Spaniards is dangerous to the ſalvation of the former, and on this pretence they have obtained a prohibition to the latter. As for the holy father, he is either ſo thoroughly ſatisfied with the conduct of the Jeſuits, or is elſe ſo little acquainted with it, that he never interferes therewith, but leaves all things to be guided by the order. To this council, or congregation, the caciques are accountable, and from them they receive ſuch orders as concern the miſſion in general; whereas in matters relating to their particular pariſhes, they are entirely directed by the preſiding prieſt. One great point under conſideration at each of theſe aſſemblies is, preventing ſtrangers from having any intelligence of the ſtate of the miſſion; another for reſtraining the Indians from learning the Spaniſh tongue, or applying themſelves to any ſtudies, ſave ſuch as may render them ſerviceable to the ſociety, among which they reckon architecture, painting, and muſic, all which they are taught in every pariſh.

The military eſtabliſhment is very conſiderable, each pariſh having a conſiderable body of horſe and foot exerciſed duly, as the Swiſs are, every Sunday evening. Theſe troops are divided into regiments, conſiſting each of ſix companies, and every company of fifty men. The regiments of cavalry conſiſt of the ſame number

ber of troops, that is, of ſix regiments, but every troop contains only forty men. Theſe regiments are regularly officered, and the whole eſtabliſhment is ſaid to amount to 60,000 men, under the command of ſeveral general officers; but whenever any body of theſe forces takes the field, one of the fathers always commands in chief: for it is a maxim which they never depart from, not to permit their Indians, either in peace or in war, to acknowledge any authority but their own. Theſe forces, the fathers pretend, are kept up to ſecure their ſubjects againſt the inſults of the Portugueſe, who were formerly wont to make inroads upon them; but there is another uſe the fathers make of their troops, which ſeems to be at leaſt as much their concern, and that is, ſcouring the country, to prevent either Spaniards or ſtrangers from coming privately into the quarters of the miſſion.

If, in ſpite of all theſe precautions, a ſtranger inſinuates himſelf into their territories, the father into whoſe pariſh he happens to come, ſends for him immediately, takes him into his own houſe, aſſigns him a handſome apartment, uſes him with all imaginable reſpect, but affords him no ſort of liberty; if, at his requeſt, the father permits him to ſee the town, it is altogether in his company, and the Indians, having previous notice, ſhut up their gates and windows, and keep as cloſe as if they were afraid the ſight of a ſtranger would give them the plague. As ſoon as an opportunity offers of embarking at Buenos Ayres, he is ſent thither,

guarded by a detachment of Indians, not one of whom can ſpeak a ſyllable of any European language; ſo that it is next to impoſſible for him to carry away any more than a ſuperficial account of the ſtate of the miſſion. For however frank and open the father may be with regard to things which have no reſpect to their policy here, he is ſilent as the grave in every thing relating to the miſſion. The Indians alſo, though of themſelves gentle and courteous, yet, in conſequence of the fathers inſtructions, will not ſo much as look an European in the face, though they do not underſtand one word of his language.

It is poſitively aſſerted, that in this country there are many, and thoſe very rich, mines of gold and ſilver; that there are beſides abundance of valuable commodities, eſpecially the herb paraguay; ſo that if this province was as much under the King of Spain's dominion as the reſt of his provinces in America, it would yield him a very conſiderable revenue. In its preſent ſituation he draws very little, if any thing, from it; nor are things like to be in a better condition.

The fathers ought indeed to pay his Catholic Majeſty a piece of eight for every head under their juriſdiction, which capitation-tax would produce a large ſum, if it was fairly collected, and honeſtly paid: but they have found two ways to elude this; firſt, by bribing the governor of Buenos Ayres, thereby hindering him from viſiting the miſſion, as he ought to do, once in five years, which affords them an op-

portunity

portunity of fixing the tax at a third of what it ought to be; and even this they take care not to pay; for being obliged ſometimes to furniſh detachments for the King's ſervice, during which time they receive pay, they prevail on the governors to certify theſe detachments to be thrice as numerous as they really are, and thereby balance the account. From which it is evident, that the King of Spain is roundly cheated, and greatly impoſed upon by his ſubjects in America; ſo that he can neither rely on the honour of his officers nor the faith of his prieſts.

Such a government as this ſeems to be unchangeable while it proceeds upon the ſame principle; nor is it ſurpriſing that theſe Jeſuits are extremely careful in keeping the poor natives ſlaves to ignorance and bigotry; as alſo in concealing ſo much empire and wealth from the world, eſpecially Spain, at whoſe expenſe they were ſent to convert the Indians, and to make them ſubjects to the Spaniſh monarchy.

Such is the ſituation and authority of every Jeſuit in Paraguay, where leſs than fifty monks have above a million of ſouls under their government, who, like abject ſlaves, worſhip the prieſts, as if they were ſo many gods. But there is great reaſon to believe, that theſe miſſionaries will, in proceſs of time, renounce all allegiance to the crown of Spain, and ſet up a king of their own order; and if we may credit certain advices, they have been already attempting a ſcheme of this kind, and it is imagined they will embrace the firſt favourable opportunity, if not timeouſly prevented.

PART IV.

The Spaniſh ſettlements in Terra Firma. Of the different countries in South America ſtill poſſeſſed by the Indians, &c.; with a deſcription of the Canary iſlands.

CHAP. I.

A general deſcription of the extenſive province of Terra Firma; its boundaries, extent, climate, and ſoil. The diſcovery of it, and the ſettlements made there by the Spaniards; its diviſion into eight provinces or diſtricts.

THE Spaniards have not made any ſettlements in the other diviſions of South America, which they lay claim to, to the ſouthward of Buenos Ayres, nor to the northward of Paraguay, except in Terra Firma, which make a very conſiderable part of their American dominions.

This province is of vaſt extenſion, being bounded by part of Peru, the country of the Amazons, and part of Guiana, on the ſouth; by the river Oroonoko, which ſeparates it from Guiana, on the ſouth-eaſt; by the North ſea, or part of the Atlantic ocean, on the north and eaſt; by the Pacific ocean, on the weſt, where the iſthmus of Darien alſo divides it from New Spain. It reaches from 61 to 83 deg. of weſt longitude, and from the equator to 12 deg. 30 min. of north latitude, being about 1300 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and 760 broad from north to ſouth; but in ſeveral places it is

Boundaries and extent.

ſo

ſo pent in by the river Oroonoko, that it is not half that breadth in ſome places, and not exceeding 180 towards the mouth of that river. The province of Guiana is ſometimes included in Terra Firma, which would make it of much greater extent; but as this country is not under the dominion of the Spaniards, we ſhall not treat of it at this time.

Diſcovered by Columbus.

Terra Firma, like that of Chili, was divided into many governments, and the people into ſeveral tribes governed by their reſpective caciques or princes. It was firſt diſcovered by the renowned Columbus in his third voyage to America in 1498, whoſe ſailors called it *New Caſtile*, becauſe moſt of them were natives of Old in Spain; it afterwards obtained the name of *Caſtilla del oro*, or the golden Caſtile, on account of the large quantities of that metal found there; but at laſt it recovered the name firſt given it by Columbus, *viz.* Terra Firma, or firm land.

Climate and ſoil, &c.

The climate cannot be called either pleaſant or healthful, becauſe the inhabitants are ſcorched by the violent heat of the ſun in one part of the year, and flooded with continual rains in the other. The ſoil is very different; for there is a perpetual verdure in ſome places, though the trees produce little or no fruit; but in other places, there is ſuch great plenty of all things, that the inhabitants have two harveſts, and their verdant meadows feed prodigious numbers of cattle. The mountains abound with lions, tygers, and other voracious animals. Here are many large rivers, beſides leſſer ſtreams, but ſome of them are ſo far from being wholeſome, that their waters are dangerous, and not fit to be uſed. There were formerly very rich mines of gold in this province, which are now almoſt exhauſted, or at leaſt neglected; though there are ſtill ſome remains of them, as well as ſome ſilver

and

and iron mines that have been ſince opened. There was once a very rich pearl-fiſhery on the ſea-coaſt, which is at preſent greatly decayed. But as the diſtricts of this country are ſo large and numerous, it will be more proper to repreſent their products, rivers, trade, *&c.* under their reſpective diviſions.

Columbus only diſcovered this north coaſt of South America, from the mouth of the river Oroonoko in the eaſt, to Porto-Bello in the weſt; and, though he went on ſhore in ſeveral parts, he eſtabliſhed no ſettlements on the coaſt. Alonza de Ojeda, and Americus Veſputius, made a farther diſcovery of this coaſt in 1499: they were immediately followed by Peter Alonzo Nino, Vincent, Yanes Pinſon, and ſeveral others.

Vaſco Nunez de Bilboa, who attended General Enciſo in an expedition from Cuba, firſt ſettled a colony, and erected a fort, on the weſt ſide of the gulf of Darien, in 1510. He afterwards took the command from Enciſo, who was very unfortunate in this expedition, and loſt ſeveral of his men in his engagements with the Indians. Nunez then cultivated a friendſhip with ſeveral of the Indian princes, who governed the country of Darien; after which, he took 200 Spaniards and 1000 Indians to penetrate through the mountains, and diſcover the South ſea, wherein, as we formerly obſerved, he happily ſucceeded, in the year 1513.

In this expedition, the Spaniards killed a great number of defenceleſs Indians, who at firſt took theſe invaders for gods, but ſoon looked upon them as devils; being obliged to ſurrender themſelves to their mercy, or expoſe themſelves to their cruelty. Nunez went up to the knees in the South ſea, and took a formal poſſeſſion of it for his Catholic Majeſty: after which he returned to Darien, and ſolicited a reinforcement from Spain, where he ſent a great part

of

of the gold which he had acquired from the Indians.

Accordingly, Peter Arias, or Pedrarias, was appointed governor of the province, and ſent over with 1500 men; being accompanied by Father John Quevedo, a Franciſcan friar, as biſhop of the place, with ſeveral other monks of that order, to inſtruct the natives in the Chriſtian religion. Nunez was alſo appointed lieutenant of the South ſeas, but received great indignities from the governor, who unjuſtly put him to death *.

Arias being now without a rival, or any perſon to check his cruelty, ravaged the country from ſea to ſea, in a terrible manner. He reduced the provinces of Veragua, and Nicaragua, built Panama, Nombre de dios, and other towns; but committed ſuch horrid depredations on the Indians, that he thought proper to remove to his acquiſitions in Veragua, where he imagined himſelf to be out of the reach of juſtice. The biſhop of Chiapa aſſerts, that Arias and his ſucceſſors deſtroyed no leſs than 800,000 people, and plundered the country of ſeveral millions of gold, but ſent no more than 3000 crowns to his Catholic Majeſty.

The reſt of Terra Firma, from Darien to the river Oroonoko, was ſubdued by private adventurers, at their own expenſes, who obtained a particular extent of country from the court of Spain, and uſed the natives at diſcretion; ravaging and plundering the ſeveral countries for 1500 miles together; and murdering, or enſlaving the miſerable inhabitants, who were incapable of making any conſiderable reſiſtance againſt their rapacious invaders; but gave them an opportunity of depopulating many countries, which were well inhabited. The biſhop of Chiapa, who was appointed to make a ſtrict inquiry into the uſage of theſe oppreſſed Indians, aſſerts, that his countrymen

* See above, p. 159.

men were not content with barely maſſacring theſe miſerable people; but tortured and oppreſſed the ſurvivers with ſo much inhumanity, that they thought death was more deſirable than life, under ſuch an inſupportable tyranny. He obſerves, that the Spaniards carried two millions of Indians into ſlavery, from the coaſts of Guiana and New Andaluſia, many of whom died at ſea for want of proviſions, and the remainder periſhed in the mines; beſides, many thouſands more were deſtroyed in the pearl-fiſheries on this coaſt, by compelling them to dive for pearls beyond their ſtrength: That the Dutch and German adventurers (who are no leſs noted for cruelty than the Spaniards) deſtroyed upwards of four millions of ſouls within the diſtrict of Venezuela, where they put the caciques to the moſt cruel tortures, to make them diſcover the gold, which theſe barbarous invaders ſuſpected they had concealed. To all which he adds, that theſe adventurers kept packs of great maſtiff dogs, on purpoſe to hunt the Indians, and tear them to pieces; that the poor natives frequently fled to the woods and mountains, as a place of refuge from their unrelenting enemies; this the Spaniards termed rebellion, and ſent out their dogs to hunt them, by whom they were torn in pieces, or ſlaughtered by their maſters, who were poſſeſſed of as little humanity as the fierce animals they made uſe of in deſtroying them. All which facts, how monſtrous ſoever, appeared to be true, by the teſtimony of witneſſes on the trial of ſeveral cauſes in the courts of Spain, between the ſeveral adventurers, who had diſſenſions concerning the limits of their reſpective provinces, the diſtribution of the natives, and the reſt of the plunder: the truth of ſuch barbarities was occaſionally manifeſted.

However, the natives of this part of America were never entirely conquered, but many fled and eſcaped the

the horrid maſſacres of their cruel invaders, whoſe poſterity ſtill retain an inveterate hatred and hereditary averſion to their tyrannical maſters: and it is highly probable, that if any other nation was to attempt the reduction of this part of the new world, the Indians would join them againſt the Spaniards; as a proof of this, they frequently aſſiſted the Engliſh bucaneers in their expeditions into theſe parts.

Terra Firma is ſubdivided into the ſubſequent provinces, or diſtricts, and we ſhall deſcribe them in the order as they lie from eaſt to weſt, beginning, 1. with New Andaluſia. 2. New Granada. 3. Venezuela. 4. Rio de la Hacha. 5. St Martha. 6. Carthagena. 7. Popayan; and laſtly, Terra Firma Proper, or the iſthmus of Darien.

CHAP. II.

The extent, climate, ſoil, product, rivers, chief towns, and trade of the province of New Andaluſia.

THis province, including the diſtricts of Cumana and Paria, is bounded on the north by the North ſeas; by the river Oroonoko on the eaſt; by part of Guiana and New Granada on the ſouth; alſo by part of New Granada and Venezuela on the weſt; extending about 500 miles from north to ſouth, and 270 from eaſt to weſt.

The inland part of this country is mountainous, covered with woods, intermixed with valleys, and meadows, that yield corn, and afford plenty of paſturage. This is the moſt eaſterly of all the Spaniſh colonies; for though they uſually include in Terra Firma the large country of Guiana, yet they have few or no ſettlements in it; but the Dutch and French have fixed themſelves there, where they have very valuable colonies.

The produce of New Andaluſia, conſiſts chiefly in ſugar and tobacco, Brazil wood, and other die ſtuffs, with ſome gums and drugs.

The principal river which waters this country, is the Oroonoko, whoſe ſource is near that of Magdalena in the province of Quito in Peru, almoſt under the equinox. It firſt directs its courſe to the eaſtward, and then turns to the north, receiving ſeveral other leſſer rivers in its courſe, which ſome have computed to be no leſs than 3000 miles, though it is made much leſs by others; and after watering ſo great an extent of country, at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the North ſea, in about nine degrees of north latitude, near the iſland of Trinidad, where it is 100 miles over. Mr Sparrey, who was left in the adjoining country by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, ſays, this river is alſo called *Baraguan* or *Paria*, and falls into the ſea by ſixteen mouths; though what he calls mouths are the ſtreights between the iſlands that lie near the ſhore at the entrance of the river; but we have no good modern account of this river, becauſe it is not much frequented for trade.

The chief towns in this province are, 1. Cumana, or Comana, the capital, ſituated in 65 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude, and 9 deg. 55 min. of ſouth latitude, being nine miles ſouth from the North ſea. It was built by the Spaniards in 1520, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, being ſo much ſurrounded with hills and woods, that it cannot be diſcerned till a ſhip enters the harbour, and is a place of ſuch ſtrength, that the bucaneers were repulſed, when they attacked it in 1670.

The town of Cumana.

2. Verina is a ſmall town, ſituated in the ſouth-weſt part of the gulf of Curiaco, about ſixty miles eaſt of Cumana, but is remarkable

Verina.

markable for nothing, except its excellent plantations of tobacco.

3. St Thome, or St Thomas, is alſo included in the province of Andaluſia, though it is ſituated on the eaſt ſide, and near the mouth of the Oroonoko, in the country of Surinam, at the top of a peninſula, formed by that river, and another called *Coyrama*, in 8 deg. 26 min. north latitude, being the only conſiderable ſettlement the Spaniards have to the eaſtward of the Oroonoko. Sir Walter Raleigh took this town, with the forces which he had carried over to plant a colony in Guiana, though the doing of it proved fatal to that illuſtrious perſon, who loſt his ſon in the enterpriſe, and his own head afterwards, on a complaint preſented againſt him to King James I. by the Spaniſh ambaſſador. But the death of ſuch a celebrated ſubject, and on ſuch an occaſion, will always be a diſgrace to the annals of that monarch, and even a reproach to England itſelf. There are ſeveral other towns here, but none of ſuch conſequence, as to merit a deſcription; as the Spaniards are few in this province, the greateſt part of the country is unoccupied, and ſuffered to continue in a ſtate of rudeneſs for want of cultivation. St Thome.

CHAP. III.

The province of New Granada; its chief towns, productions, and trade.

THE province of New Granada, Santa Fee, or Caſtilla del oro, is bounded on the eaſt by New Andaluſia and Guiana, by the country of the Amazons on the ſouth, on the weſt by Popayan and part of Carthagena, and on the north by the provinces of St Martha and Venezuela, being 340 miles in length

from north to ſouth, and about as many in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

This large inland country affords a great variety of hills and fruitful valleys, being well watered with navigable rivers, and eſteemed as healthy as any part of Terra Firma. In the mountains are mines of gold, ſilver, and emeralds; alſo it abounds with cedar-trees and other valuable timber. In the valleys are abundance of horſes, cattle, hogs, goats, and veniſon. Theſe valleys alſo produce plenty of grain and fruits, while the rivers abound with fiſh.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Rio Grande, or Magdalena, which runs directly acroſs the country; and, 2. The Oroonoko, which runs through all the eaſtern part of it. The province is ſurrounded by ſeveral Indian nations who have never been ſubdued, and inhabit a very hot country, though in general Granada is temperate, or rather cold, by reaſon of its many mountains. It was firſt diſcovered by Gonſalvo Ximenes de Queſada in 1536, who reduced ſeveral of the Indian caciques, and called their country *New Granada*, becauſe he was a native of Old Granada in Spain. In this expedition Queſada plundered the Indian villages, and amaſſed great quantities of gold and emeralds.

The town of Santa Fee de Bigota.

1. Santa Fee de Bigota is the capital of the province, and of all Terra Firma, ſituated on the banks of the lake Gutavita, near the river Magdalena, in 73 deg. weſt longitude, and 3 deg. 35 min. ſouth latitude, about 180 miles eaſt of Bonaventura bay on the South ſea. The town is very populous, and is decorated with many elegant buildings, being the reſidence of the governor, the ſee of an archbiſhop, and the ſeat of an univerſity.

Trinidad.

2. Trinidad lies about twenty-three miles to the north-eaſt of Santa Fee, and thirty north

of

of the river Magdalena. It is remarkable for having ſome quarries of fine marble, rocks of cryſtal, emeralds, and other valuable ſtones.

3. Tunia is the capital of a diſtrict of the ſame name, which has ſeveral mines of gold and emeralds. It ſtands on a riſing ground, about eighty miles eaſt of Santa Fee, and ſerves to keep the neighbouring Indians in awe. This is ſaid to be the principal place of trade in the whole country. Tunia.

There are many other towns in this province; ſuch as, Pampeluna, 140 miles north-eaſt of Santa Fee; Truxillo, 210 miles in the ſame direction from the capital; Tucuyo, 320 miles north-eaſt from Santa Fee, and 160 ſouth from the neareſt coaſt of the North ſea; Mereda, almoſt on the limits which divide New Granada from Venezuela; beſides many others of leſs note. The ſoil in the valleys is remarkably fruitful in corn, fruits, ſugars, and many other valuable commodities, while the bowels of the earth are rich in gold, ſilver, and other precious metals. However, this province is very imperfectly known, being an inland country, and ſeldom viſited by foreigners, and the Spaniards induſtriouſly conceal the productions of it from other nations, for fear they ſhould diſturb them in the poſſeſſion of theſe valuable acquiſitions.

CHAP. IV.

The province of Venezuela; its ſoil, productions, chief towns, and trade, &c.

THE province of Venezuela, including the diſtrict of the Caraccas, is bounded by New Andaluſia on the eaſt, by Granada on the ſouth, by St Martha and Rio de la Hacha on the weſt, as alſo part of the laſt-mentioned province and the North ſea on the north.

The

The Spaniards have not aſcertained the true limits of the ſeveral diſtricts in Terra Firma, and more eſpecially of this, ſo that its extent has not yet been ſet down with any accuracy; however, the lateſt accounts ſay, that it extends about 400 miles along the coaſt of the North ſea, and upwards of 300 into the heart of the continent.

The climate is pretty temperate conſidering its ſituation, and the ſoil in many places is ſo prolific, that the inhabitants have annually two harveſts. Here are very rich meadows, producing plenty of grain and fruits, which feed large herds of cattle, ſheep, and horſes; the uncultivated parts afford plenty of game, and many kinds of wild beaſts. In the heart of the country are the plains of Corora, where the ſoil is wonderfully rich, and feeds great numbers of European ſheep. The country is alſo remarkable for its plantations of cocoa, ſugar, and tobacco; but it labours under one great inconvenience, namely, the want of freſh water, for there are very few rivulets, though there are ſome conſiderable lakes in the country.

The lake of Maracabo is about 170 miles in length, and forty in breadth in ſome places, in others more, but in ſome leſs; where it opens into the ſea, it is called *the gulf of Venezuela*. The Spaniards of this province carry on a trade with thoſe of Granada by means of this lake, which grows narrower about the middle of it, where the town of Maracabo ſtands. There is another lake called *Tocarigua*, but quite inconſiderable in compariſon of the former.

The principal cities, and other places in this province are,

1. Maracabo, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the weſtern banks of the lake of the ſame name, in 71 deg. weſt longitude, and 10 deg. of north latitude, about eighteen or twenty miles from

Maracabo.

from the mouth of the gulf. It is elegantly built, and has a great many ſtately houſes, very regular, and adorned with balconies, from whence there is a proſpect of the lake, which looks like a ſea, and has three ſmall iſlands near the town. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to exceed 4000, out of which there are 800 men capable of bearing arms. Here is a large parochial church, an hoſpital, and four convents, beſides a ſpacious houſe for the deputy-governor, who is dependent on the governor of the province, whoſe reſidence is at Coro. Small veſſels are continually coming here with merchandiſes and manufactures from the other places near the lake; the commodities brought in theſe veſſels are chiefly cocoa, ſugar, indigo, tobacco, and green hides, which are afterwards put on board the ſhips that come here to purchaſe them: beſides, this place is ſo convenient for the building of ſhips, that the Spaniards fit out many veſſels from this dock for trading all over America, and even into Spain. This place is alſo the ſtaple for the commodities of Mereda, and ſome other towns ſituated on the frontiers of New Granada.

This town was taken and plundered by the French bucaneers, as alſo by Capt. Morgan in 1669, who demoliſhed the forts at the mouth of the gulf, and got poſſeſſion of the town without any oppoſition, though his force conſiſted only of 500 men.

There are ſeveral pretty towns pleaſantly ſeated on both ſides of this beautiful lake, ſuch as Truxillo, Gibraltar, Baracoa, New Valencia, Venezuela, Paragonia, *&c.*; all theſe carry on a conſiderable trade, and have fine plantations in the adjacent country.

2. The next town of note is Coro, or Venezuela, pleaſantly ſituated on the North ſea, upon the north-eaſt part of the peninſula, in 69 deg. 50 min. weſt longitude, and 10 deg. 40 min. north latitude. It is the capital of the province, the reſidence Coro.

residence of the governor, the seat of the courts of judicature, and the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of St Domingo in the island of Hispaniola, but is remarkable neither for its buildings or commerce.

St Jago de Leon.

3. St Jago de Leon is about 120 miles south-east of Coro, and eighteen south of the sea. The governor of the province sometimes resides here. It was taken by the English in the year 1595, after they had made themselves masters of the town of Caraccas.

From this town the country of the Caraccas extends as far east as Cape Blanco, being so called from the native Indians; but this district is under the government of Venezuela.

This coast, according to Dampier, is remarkable on several accounts, being a continued tract of high ridges of hills intermixed with small valleys, stretched from east to west about sixty miles, though in such a manner, that they alternately run pointing upon the shore from north to south. These valleys are in general very narrow, and few of them extending above four or five miles from the sea, because a long ridge of mountains at that distance from the coast runs from east to west, almost parallel to it, joining these short ridges, and closing up the south end of the valleys, which lie open to the sea at the north ends, making so many little sandy bays, that are the only landing-places on the coast. Both the main ridge and the shorter ones, which point towards the sea, are so high, that the valleys make little appearance about three or four leagues off at sea, where all looks like one continued mountain. These hills are all barren except the declivities near the bottom, which are covered with a thick black mould, being the same with the valleys, and is very good. There is a strong red clay in some of the valleys, which in general are extremely

fertile,

fertile, well watered, and cloſely inhabited by Spaniards and their negroes, who have maize and plantains for their ſupport, with Indian fowls and hogs; but the principal product of theſe valleys, and the only commodity vended in the country is the cacao-nut for making chocolate, of which we gave an account when treating of the trading commodities of New Spain *.

The coaſt of the Caraccas is ſubject to dry north-weſt winds at certain ſeaſons, but, in other reſpects, it enjoys a ſweet, clear air, and is very healthy. The Spaniards uſed to have look-outs on the hills, with breaſt-works in the valleys, and moſt of their negroes are furniſhed with arms for the defence of the bays; notwithſtanding the Dutch carried on ſo profitable a trade here, that Dampier ſays, he has known three or four great ſhips at a time on the coaſt, each of them mounted with forty or fifty guns, which carried there all ſorts of European goods, eſpecially linen, making great returns, chiefly in ſilver and cacao. The ſame author obſerves with regret, and wonders that none of his countrymen have found the way there directly from England, adding, that the Jamaicans traded there, and found it very profitable, though they carried Britiſh commodities at ſecond or third hand.

4. Caraccas, the chief town of the diſtrict, is ſituated in 67 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, and 10 deg. 10 min. north latitude, about fifty-ſix miles north-eaſt of St Jago de Leon. Dampier ſays, the town lies a good way within land, and is a large wealthy place, inhabited by the proprietors of thoſe cacao-walks which are in the valleys along the ſhore, and worked by negroes under the direction of overſeers. It ſtands in a large ſavannah country, abounding with cattle, but the way to it is very ſteep and craggy over a ridge of hills. Caraccas.

* See above, p. 118.

5. Porto-Cavallo is a ſea-port town on the Caraccas coaſt, about twenty-five miles north-eaſt of St Jago de Leon, and thirty-one ſouth-weſt of the town of Caraccas. Although the number of inhabitants here be inconſiderable, yet they carry on a good trade to various places.

Porto-Cavallo.

6. La Guerre is about forty miles eaſt of Porto-Cavallo, and fifteen weſt of Cape Blanco, ſituated cloſe by the ſea, and is one of the principal places upon the coaſt, though it has a bad harbour; it is however much frequented by Spaniſh ſhipping; beſides, the Dutch and Engliſh anchor in the ſandy bays that lie interſperſed on the coaſts in the mouths of the valleys, where there is very good riding.

La Guerre.

The town has a ſtrong fort, but is open to the ſea, and was taken by Capt. Wright in the laſt century with a few privateers, though Commodore Knowles miſcarried before it in February 1743, when he had eight men of war and three ſloops under his command, with 2300 ſailors and marines, beſides 400 regular troops on board; however, the Spaniards had little reaſon to be elated, as their town and fortifications were almoſt deſtroyed, and 700 men killed. In April following, the Commodore, with as little ſucceſs, attacked the town of Porto-Cavallo, but after the loſs of 200 men was obliged to deſiſt from the enterpriſe, and return to Jamaica.

CHAP. V.

The provinces of Rio de la Hacha, and Santa Martha; their ſituation, produce, chief towns, and trade, &c.

THE province of Rio de la Hacha is ſituated between the province and gulf of Venezuela on the eaſt, and the province of St Martha on the weſt.

It

It is a ſmall territory in the form of a peninſula, between the gulf of Venezuela and a bay of the North ſea; the middle of the peninſula being about fifty miles broad, but increaſing to double that breadth within land, and extends about 120 miles from the ſea into the country. This province is both pleaſant and fruitful, abounding with Indian corn, herbs, and fruits, nor is it ſo ſubject to rain as towards the weſt of St Martha; at the ſame time there are tornadoes, or thunder-ſhowers, but not ſo violent nor frequent as on the coaſt of Porto-Bello. Here are mines of jaſper and chalcedonies, as alſo ſalt-pits, with a pearl-fiſhery on the coaſt, wherein the Indians are chiefly employed: but they retain their freedom up in the open country, where they form a numerous nation, and are ſaid to be a ſtubborn ſort of people; however, they have ſome Spaniſh miſſionaries among them, who have opened a trade, and rendered them more ſociable than formerly.

The principal town in this province is Rio de la Hacha, which receives its name from the river at the mouth of which it ſtands. It is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the peninſula, upon a little hill, near the banks of the river, in 11 deg. 6 min. of north latitude, about 120 miles eaſt of the town of St Martha, and contains about 100 houſes. There is a good road for ſhips directly oppoſite to the town, with a clean ſandy bottom, where the Jamaica ſhips frequently come over to trade. This was formerly a ſtrong town, but having been ſo often taken and plundered by the bucaneers, the Spaniards abandoned it in 1682, though they ſoon ſettled it again, and have ſince fortified it, ſo as to be no longer apprehenſive of ſuch viſits.

The town of Rio de la Hacha.

There is another town about eighteen miles to the north-eaſt of the former, on the ſame coaſt, called *Rancheria*, being chiefly inhabited by Indians, who

are employed in the pearl-fiſhery: the pearl-banks lie about four or five leagues off from the ſhore.

The province of St Martha is about 140 miles in length, and above 200 in breadth from north to ſouth; being ſituated between the province of Rio de la Hacha on the eaſt, that of Carthagena on the weſt, and New Granada on the ſouth. This is a very mountainous country, and, according to Dampier, higher land than the peak of Teneriff, or any other land in the known world, being ſeen near 200 miles at ſea. Beſides, a chain of hills runs directly ſouth, which communicate with, and are a part of the great Andian mountains. The climate is ſultry hot towards the ſea-coaſt, but the high mountains which are covered with ſnow extend ſixty miles round the capital city, and render the inland country much colder. They have great falls of rain towards the ſea-coaſt in the months of September and October, but little rain during the reſt of the year. The ſoil not only produces Indian corn and fruits, but almoſt all European fruits and plants come to great perfection. The country alſo affords indigo, cochineal, brazil and logwood. In the mountains are mines of gold and copper, with various kinds of precious ſtones, ſuch as emeralds, ſapphires, and jaſpers, with marble finely veined, and on the ſea-coaſt is a very rich pearl-fiſhery.

The province of St Martha.

The moſt conſiderable places in this province are,

1. The city of St Martha, which gives name to the province, is ſituated on a branch of the Rio Grande, cloſe by the ſhore of the North ſea, in 74 deg. 12 min. weſt longitude, and 11 deg. 35 min. north latitude. La Martiniere ſays, it was formerly very populous, but has greatly decayed ſince the Spaniſh fleets neglected touching here, though at preſent it is ſuppoſed to contain about 3000 inhabitants, including Indians, blacks,

The city of St Martha.

blacks, and mulattoes. The governor of the province reſides here, with the royal officers; and it is the ſee of a biſhop. It lies near the great mountains of St Martha, in the neighbourhood of a fine fruitful plain, having a large, ſafe, and commodious port, where there is a conſiderable trade carried on in the richeſt commodities; they have alſo a manufacture of cotton cloth, which the Spaniards diſpoſe of to the Indians.

This place is remarkably well ſituated for trade, but it has been ſo frequently plundered, that people have been afraid to ſettle there. In the year 1585 it was entirely ruined by Sir Francis Drake, and the following year it was plundered by Sir Anthony Shirley. It fell into the hands of the Dutch in 1630, and was ſeveral times afterwards taken by the bucaneers, who in 1681 ſcarce thought it worth pillaging; but it has ſince recovered its ancient luſtre and commerce.

2. Baranca is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river Grande, in 10 deg. 15 min. north latitude, about ſeventy miles ſouth of St Martha, being a place of great trade, becauſe the merchandiſes of New Granada are brought here by means of the river, from whence they are conveyed to the bay of Samba, or elſe directly to St Martha, by means of a branch of the great river, which riſes about ten miles above Baranca, and falls into the North ſea at St Martha. Baranca.

The towns of Teneriff, Temalameque, Cividad de Reyes, and Ramada, though pleaſantly ſituated, and ſurrounded with fruitful fields, yet are of little conſequence as to trade.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

The province of Carthagena, its ſituation, productions, chief towns, and commerce.

THE province of Carthagena, which received its name from the capital city, is bounded on the north by the ſea; by St Martha on the eaſt; on the ſouth by Popayan and Granada; and on the weſt by the river and gulf of Darien, which ſeparates it from Terra Firma Proper; being about 300 miles from north to ſouth, and 200 broad.

The country is diverſified with hills and valleys, covered with thick foreſts and groves, among which are many tygers, ſnakes, and other noxious animals; the ſoil is generally wet and marſhy, occaſioned by the exceſſive rains; ſo that European grain does not proſper here ſo well as in ſome of the neighbouring provinces. But the balm, gums, and drugs produced here are held in great eſtimation.

The principal river in this province, is that of Rio Grande de Magdalena, which riſes in the province of Quito near the equator, and runs about 1000 miles direct north, falling into the North ſea, between this province and that of St Martha, where it is two leagues broad; but the rocks and ſand which lie before it, prevent the entrance of large ſhips; beſides, the ſtream is ſo rapid, that boats are obliged to be dragged up by men or horſes; and there is an iſland in the mouth of the river, which divides it into two channels.

The city of Carthagena.

Carthagena, the capital of the province, is ſituated upon the ſea-coaſt, on a peninſula near a bay of the North ſea, in 75 deg. 25 min. weſt longitude, and 10 deg. 30 min. of north latitude, about ninety-five miles ſouth-weſt of

St

St Martha, 300 eaſt of Porto-Bello, and 400 ſouth of Port-Royal in the iſland of Jamaica. It is one of the largeſt and beſt fortified towns in South America, with a very ſecure and capacious harbour, well defended by ſtrong fortifications.

The city was founded in the year 1532, and was ſo named by the Spaniards, either becauſe they were natives of Carthagena in Old Spain, or becauſe it reſembled that harbour in the Mediterranean. It is well built with free-ſtone, and very populous, conſiſting of five large ſtreets, each near half a mile in length, but one of them is larger and longer than the reſt, in the centre of which is a grand ſquare. Here are five churches beſides the cathedral, which is a noble ſtructure; there are alſo eleven convents, a fine palace for the governor, an elegant townhouſe, with a magnificent cuſtomhouſe, the whole being walled round, and defended by fortifications conſtructed in a modern manner, and lined with free-ſtone. The inhabitants are about 20,000, of whom only 4000 are Spaniards, the reſt being creoles, meſtizoes, and negroes.

It is divided into the upper and lower town; the former is called *Carthagena*, but the lower is called *Gaſimana*, that is to ſay, the ſuburbs; which is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of the upper town, and ſeparated from it by a canal. The whole lies in a ſandy plain; that on the north ſide reaches to the ſea, which is very ſhallow there, and the coaſt has an eaſy deſcent to the ſouthward; ſo that, though the town lies open to the ſea, it cannot be taken this way; becauſe ſhips of force cannot approach near enough to batter it. It is ſurrounded with a muddy ditch or pond; but there is a cauſey which leads from the town to the mainland, 300 paces long, and twelve broad; with two arches under it, to let the tide in and out.

The harbour may be juſtly ranked among the firſt

in

Its harbour. in America. It is formed by an iſland, called *Terra Bomba*, and a peninſula called *Nave*, about four miles in length. The coaſt of both runs ſouth by weſt, and north by eaſt; but to the ſouth of the peninſula lies the iſland, which on the north-eaſt is ſeparated from the land by a very narrow paſſage. The entrance of the harbour is called *Bocha Chica*, or little mouth; and the harbour lies behind the iſthmus, between it and the continent, being a very fine and moſt commodious port, capable of containing ſeveral large fleets: on which account the galleons ſometimes winter here, when they are obliged to ſtay in America.

Fortifications. This harbour is naturally ſtrong, and better fortified than any place in America, the Havannah excepted. The mouth of it is commanded by the caſtle of St Lewis, mounted with ninety-four guns, as alſo by the forts of St Philip and James, which ſtand on the ſhore three quarters of a mile from St Lewis, the one having eight, and the other twelve guns. Within, on a ſmall iſland, is the fort of St Joſeph, mounted with ſixteen guns; and at ſome diſtance, to the north-weſt, ſtands the fort of Cambio, planted with ſeven guns. Towards the head of the harbour ſtands Caſtle Grande on the eaſt part of the peninſula, mounted with ſixty-four guns; and directly oppoſite to it on the other ſide of the harbour is Manſenilla, mounted with ſeven guns. Farther up, nearer to the town, are the forts of Paſarilla and St Lazaro, the former having ſeven guns, and the latter twenty-five, which commands the whole city and ſuburbs. Beſides, when the town was beſieged by the brave Admiral Vernon, it was defended by 160 guns, and the ſuburbs by 140. The garriſon in time of peace conſiſts of ten companies of regulars, each containing ſeventy-ſeven men, officers included, beſides ſeveral companies of militia.

Notwithſtanding

Notwithſtanding Carthagena being well fortified by land, and ſecure by ſea, yet it was taken by Sir Francis Drake in 1585, with a body of 2300 land-forces, who kept poſſeſſion of it three weeks, burnt part of the city, and received to the value of 30,000 pounds Sterling for the ranſom of the remainder. In the 1697, it was taken and plundered by M. de Pointis, who commanded a French ſquadron, on board of which were 4000 troops; and carried away to the amount of two millions Sterling.

Taken by Sir Francis Drake, and others.

Sir Charles Wager, with four men of war, attacked and defeated the Spaniſh fleet off Carthagena, on the 28th of May 1709, though the Spaniards had ſeventeen ſail of men of war and galleons; the Spaniſh admiral blew up, and the rear-admiral was taken; but, through the cowardice of two of the Britiſh captains, the vice-admiral and the reſt eſcaped. On the 9th of April 1741, the Britiſh forces were defeated in an attack upon Carthagena, and were obliged to raiſe the ſiege, though the army then conſiſted of more than 5000 men: however, Admiral Vernon, who commanded the ſquadron, bravely diſcharged his duty, by ſafely landing and reimbarking the forces; beſides, he burnt or deſtroyed ſix Spaniſh men of war, with ſix galleons, and all the ſhipping that were in the harbour; he alſo deſtroyed all the forts and ſtrong caſtles that had been erected for the ſecurity of the harbour; and in all probability would have taken the place, if the commander of the land-forces had acted with equal prudence and bravery.

Carthagena, together with its ſuburbs, is equal to a city of the third rank in Europe. Here the governor reſides, and the royal courts are kept; in civil affairs, however, an appeal lies to the audience of Santa Fee, in New Granada. It has alſo a biſhop, whoſe

ſpiritual juriſdiction is of the ſame extent with the military and civil government. The chapter is compoſed of the biſhop and prebends; here is alſo a court of inquiſition, whoſe power is very extenſive.

This may be juſtly reckoned amongſt the richeſt and moſt important towns in all America for trade; the whole revenue from the other provinces of Terra Firma is brought here; but the moſt profitable trade conſiſts in pearls brought from the iſland of Margaretta, and the coaſts of Terra Firma, in ſuch quantities, that there is a whole quarter of the town where the inhabitants have no other employment than to chuſe the pearls, and bore them for making bracelets, or necklaces. Carthagena is not only enriched by being the retreat of the galleons, whereby a conſiderable commerce is promoted in the city; but it has alſo a fund of riches in itſelf; for there are ſcarce any of the provinces of Mexico and Peru wherewith it does not carry on a trade, either by ſea or land; without mentioning what is carried on by the Jamaicans, and the Dutch at Curacao, notwithſtanding of all the vigilance of the guarda-coſtas. Great quantities of gold and ſilver are ſent here from Lima, and other parts of Peru, in exchange for European commodities. The greateſt part of the indigo, cochineal, ſugar, and cacao, gathered in the province of Guatimala in New Spain, is ſent to Carthagena, by the lake of Nicaragua. From the interior parts of the country, it has gold, aromatic gums, excellent ballams, long pepper, and fruits.

The bay of Carthagena is the firſt place in the continent of America at which the galleons are allowed to touch, and hence this town enjoys the firſt fruits of the commerce by the public ſales made there. Thoſe ſales, though not accompanied with all the forms obſerved at Porto-Bello fair, are yet very conſiderable; for the traders at Santa Fee, Poypay-

an,

an, and Quito, lay out not only their whole ſtock, but alſo the monies intruſted to them by commiſſions, for the ſeveral ſorts of goods, which are moſt wanted in their reſpective countries. The two provinces of New Granada and Popayan have no other way of ſupplying themſelves with thoſe commodities, but from Carthagena; their traders bring gold and ſilver in ſpecie, ingots, and duſt, as alſo emeralds. This little fair at Carthagena, occaſions a great number of ſhops to be opened, and filled with all kind of merchandiſe; the profit partly reſulting to the Spaniards, who come in the galleons, and are either recommended to, or are in partnerſhip with the traders, who bring European goods, and partly to thoſe who are already ſettled in the city. This is a time of univerſal profit, to ſome by letting lodgings and ſhops, to ſome by the increaſe of their reſpective trades, to others by the labour of their negro ſlaves, whoſe pay alſo is proportionally increaſed, as they do more work in this buſy time; nor is it uncommon for theſe laſt, from this briſkneſs of trade, to purchaſe their freedom, and ſet up for themſelves. While this commercial tumult laſts, the number of ſtrangers is near equal to thoſe of the reſidenters, and the conſumption, and conſequently the price of proviſions advances, from which, thoſe who bring them to market make great advantages.

When the fleet departs, and the hurry of buſineſs is over, the tempo muerto, or dead time ſucceeds. The ſmall trade carried on during this calm ſeaſon, conſiſts of a few ſhips from La Trinidad, the Havannah, and St Domingo, bringing leaf-tobacco, ſnuff, ſugars; and returning with Magdalena cacao, or chocolate, earthen ware, and other goods wanted in theſe iſlands. Another branch of the commerce of this place, during the dead ſeaſon, is carried on with the towns and villages of its own juriſdiction, from

whence are brought all kinds of neceſſaries; as maize, rice, live hogs, cotton, tobacco, fruits, ſugar, honey, and cacao; moſt of which is brought in canoes by means of rivers. Their returns conſiſt moſtly of goods for apparel, with which the ſhops furniſh themſelves from the galleons, or from prizes taken by the king's frigates, or privateers.

The climate here is extremely hot and vaſtly diſagreeable. From May to November, which is their winter, there is almoſt a continual ſucceſſion of thunder, rain, and tempeſts, ſo that the ſtreets have the appearance of rivers, and the country of the ocean. From this, though otherwiſe ſhocking inconvenience, they ſave water in reſervoirs, as the wells only ſupply them with a thick brackiſh ſort, not fit to drink. From December to April, which is ſummer here, there is ſo invariable a continuation of heat, that perſpiration is profuſe to a degree of waſte, whence the complexion of the inhabitants is ſo wan and livid, that one would imagine them but newly recovered from a violent fit of ſickneſs; yet they enjoy a good ſtate of health, and live even to eighty and upwards. The ſingularity of the climate occaſions diſtempers peculiar to the place: the moſt ſhocking is the fever, attended with the black vomit, which moſtly affects ſtrangers, and rages among the ſeamen; it laſts about three or four days, in which time the patient either recovers or dies, as it is very acute, and on recovery is never troubled with it again. Another diſtemper peculiar to the inhabitants is the leproſy, which is common and contagious.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

The province of Popayan; its ſituation, ſoil, productions, mines, chief towns, and trade.

THE province of Popayan is bounded on the north-eaſt by the province of Granada, on the north by the government of Carthagena, on the weſt by the South ſea and part of Terra Firma, on the ſouth by the audience of Quito in Peru, and on the eaſt by the ſources of the rivers Oroonoko and Negro. Its extent cannot be preciſely determined, though it is little leſs than 400 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and not much inferior in breadth from north to ſouth. It is ſeparated from Peru and the country of the Amazons by a part of the Andes, which ſend out ſeveral branches or ridges, from whence many rivers deſcend. This juriſdiction being ſo very large, and containing ſo many towns and villages, it is divided into ſeveral departments, over each of which the principal governor nominates a deputy for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and introduces them to the audience to which they belong, where his nomination is confirmed; a circumſtance neceſſary to procure them all the weight and the ſecurity in the ſeveral departments conferred upon them.

Climate and ſoil.

The temperature of this government varies greatly according as the places are ſituated in the plains, or on the ſides of the mountains; ſome being rather cold than hot, others the reverſe, while others enjoy throughout the year a perpetual ſpring, particularly Popayan the capital. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſoil, which produces in great exuberance the grains and fruits proper to its ſituation. The farmers breed great numbers of cattle and ſheep, ſome of which they ſell in the towns, and others they drive

drive to Quito, where they are ſure of a good market. The juriſdiction of Popayan is more ſubject to tempeſts of thunder and lightning than any of the known parts of America; frequent damages are done by theſe ſtorms: nor are earthquakes unfrequent, and are ſuppoſed to proceed from the great number of mines, in which it exceeds all the others, either in the province of Quito or Terra Firma.

A deſcription of the herb coca.

Among the ſeveral plants of this juriſdiction is that called by the natives *cuca* or *coca*, an herb ſo eſteemed by the Indians, that they will part with any kind of proviſions, the moſt valuable metals, gems, or any thing elſe, rather than want it. It has a weak ſtem, and, like the vine, twiſts itſelf round a ſtronger plant for ſupport. Its leaf is about an inch and a half or two inches in length, and extremely ſmooth; theſe leaves they mix with a kind of chalk or whitiſh earth, called *mambi*, and chew it, as the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies do the betal. It is ſo nutritive and invigorating, that the Indians will labour whole days without any other proviſions. Great quantities of it are carried to the mine-towns, and uſed by the Indians and negroes, who otherwiſe would not be able to perform their work *.

Rivers.

The rivers of St Martha and Magdalena paſs through this province: the former riſes in a valley near the mountains, about twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of the city Popayan: they both receive ſeveral inferior ones, which render them very broad, and they run parallel to each other for ſeveral leagues, but their ſtreams are united near the town of Tamelameque, in 9 deg. north latitude, after which their united ſtreams roll in a direct northerly courſe, and fall into the North ſea between the towns of Carthagena and St Martha. There are four or five other rivers beſide theſe, which have their ſource in this pro-

* See above, p. 194.

vince,

vince, and fall into the South ſea; alſo the great rains which fall here, occaſion many little ſtreams and rivulets, in whoſe ſands are found plenty of gold duſt; there are likewiſe many mines of gold in the mountains, which was the principal motive of ſettling this country, and building ſo many towns in it, notwithſtanding its being very uncomfortable to live ſo near the equator, where the ſcorching heat and exceſſive rains are extremely unhealthy and troubleſome. Moſt of the trees, herbs, and flowers, that grow in any part of America, are to be found in Popayan, particularly cotton-trees, cedars, red wood, and trees that yield the balſam of Tolu. Beſides the mines of gold, here are alſo precious ſtones, ſuch as jaſper, and various kinds of agates.

Though the Spaniards have made many ſettlements in the low country, yet the mountains are ſtill poſſeſſed and inhabited by the Indians, who are a brave people, and retain their freedom like the Chileſians. However, the Spaniards carry on a trade with them, by the intercourſe of thoſe whom they have converted; the former ſerving them with all kinds of European commodities, and gain ſometimes 500 pounds *per cent.*

Popayan receives large quantities of Spaniſh goods, being ſent hither from Carthagena when the galleons arrive there. But beſides this commerce, it has another reciprocal between it and Quito, to which it ſends horned cattle and mules, and receives in return cloths and bays. Its active commerce conſiſts in dried beef, ſalted pork, roll-tobacco, hogs-lard, rum, cotton, ribands, and other ſmall wares. Sugar and ſnuff are brought from Santa Fee, and ſent to Quito, and the returns to Santa Fee are cloths and bays. Here is alſo another traffic, which conſiſts in bartering ſilver for gold, there

Trade.

there being abundance of the latter, but very little of the former.

Popayan, the capital of the province, ſtands in a large plain, having on the north ſide an uninterrupted proſpect of the country; on the eaſt is a mountain of a middling height, called *M*, from its reſembling that letter. This mountain being covered with a great variety of trees, affords an entertaining landſcape. The weſt ſide is alſo diverſified with ſmall eminences. The city is of a middling ſize, with broad, ſtraight, and level ſtreets, and though they are not every where paved, are equally convenient, the foot-walk near the houſes being paved in every part of the city; the middle of the ſtreet is compoſed of a hard gravel, ſo that they are neither dirty in rainy weather, nor duſty in the great droughts of this climate; and hence the middle of the ſtreets is more convenient for walking than even the pavement itſelf.

The town of Popayan 74 deg. 35 min. weſt longitude, 2 deg. 40 min. north latitude.

The houſes are all built of unburnt bricks, having ſpacious and well-contrived apartments; and many of them a balcony towards the ſtreet; all the houſes of note have one ſtory, but the others only a ground-floor. The city has a very charming outward appearance, and the houſes are elegantly furniſhed within. The church was erected into a cathedral in the year 1547, and is the only parochial church in the city, which is indeed a very elegant one. Here are alſo convents of Franciſcans and Auguſtines, with a college of Jeſuits; all of them having churches: in the latter is a grammar-ſchool. The plan of an univerſity, under the direction of the ſame fathers, was lately founded, and bids fair for being a flouriſhing ſeminary. The number of religious to each of the above convents is but ſmall: it is, however, very different, with regard to one of the nunneries, namely,

ly, that of Incarnation, the profeſſed nuns amounting to between forty and fifty; and the whole number, nuns, ſeculars, and ſervants included, exceeds 400. The other nunnery is of the order of Santa Thereſa. All the convents and their churches are pretty large; and if the latter do not dazzle the ſight with the ſplendour of their ornaments, they do not want any thing that decency requires.

From the mountain of M iſſues a river, which, by running through the city, greatly refreſhes it, and affords many conveniencies to the inhabitants. The waters of this river have a particular medicinal virtue, which they are thought to derive from the many briers and herbs through which they flow. Two bridges are erected over this ſtream, one of ſtone, and the other of wood. On the declivity of this mountain is another ſpring of excellent water, which ſupplies the city and nunneries. The inhabitants of Popayan, conſiſt of Spaniards, Creolians, Indians, and negroes. But the greateſt part are of the negro caſts, owing to the multitude of negro ſlaves, kept as labourers in the mines, and the plantations in the country, and to do the moſt ſervile works in the city.

The inhabitants of Popayan are computed at about 25,000, among whom are many Spaniſh families; particularly ſixty, known to have been deſcended from very noble families in Spain. It is worth obſerving, that while many of the towns in America ſee the number of their inhabitants daily decreaſing, Popayan enjoys the pleaſure of viewing a conſtant augmentation. This indeed has nothing myſterious in it; the many gold mines worked all over its juriſdiction, afford employment to the indigent, and conſequently occaſion a continual reſort of people. Popayan is the conſtant reſidence of the governor, who directs all matters within the limits of his government, whether civil, political, or military: he is

alſo the chief magiſtrate of the city; the others are two ordinary alcaldes, choſen annually, and a proper number of rigidores. Here is a chamber of finances, into which are paid the ſeveral branches of the royal revenue; as the tribute of the Indians, the duties on goods, the fifth of the metals, and the like. The eccleſiaſtical chapter is compoſed of the biſhop, whoſe revenue is ſettled at 6000 dollars *per annum*; the dean, who has 500, the archdeacon, rector, and treaſurer, who have each 400. This ſee is a ſuffragan of the archbiſhopric of Santa Fee de Bagota, in the province of New Granada.

The town of Paſto.

About 117 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Popayan ſtands the towns of Paſto, ſeated in a beautiful valley, called *Atris*, watered by a charming river, and ſeveral brooks. The Spaniards have ſome conſiderable farms in this valley, where they have many ſugar-plantations, and feed abundance of cattle in the ſavannahs: they alſo ſow maize and wheat along the banks of the river, for the climate is temperate, being even colder in ſummer than in winter; they diſtinguiſh the ſeaſons here, as in moſt places near the equator, by calling the dry ſeaſon ſummer, and the rainy winter.

Bonaventura 3 deg. 30 min. north latitude.

Bonaventura is a port-town, ſituated at the bottom of a deep bay on the South ſea. It is inhabited by a few Spaniards, who receive the merchandiſes brought from New Spain, and ſend them to Popayan, and other towns in this province. The harbour is difficult to find without a pilot, being as it were hid; the town is very unwholeſome, being ſurrounded with high mountains, where it rains almoſt inceſſantly. The town is poorly defended, and yet it is the ſtaple for the cities of Cali, Popayan, Santa Fee, and the ſouthern parts of Terra Firma, though the bay might eaſily be rendered inacceſſible.

There

There are ſeveral other pretty towns ſeated on the banks of the rivers St Martha and Magdalena, as well as in other parts of the country, but none of any conſequence as to trade.

Before we leave this province, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that in ſeveral of the valleys here, is a remarkable inſect particularly famous for the power of the ſmall quantity of venom it contains; it reſembles a ſpider, but is leſs than a bug, and by ſome called *Coya*, by others *Cayba*. It is of a fiery red colour, and, like ſpiders, is frequently found in the corners of walls, and among the herbage. The venom of this ſmall creature is of ſuch malignity, that on ſqueezing the inſect, if any happen to fall on the ſkin, either of man or beaſt, it immediately penetrates into the fleſh, cauſing large tumours, which are ſoon ſucceeded by death. The only remedy hitherto known, is, on the firſt appearance of a tumour, to ſinge the party all over the body with the flame of ſtraw or long graſs growing in theſe plains. In order to this the Indians of the country lay hold of the patient, ſome by the feet, and others by the hands, and with great dexterity perform the operation; this done, the perſon is reckoned to be out of danger.

The Coya, a venomous inſect.

CHAP. VIII.

An account of the valuable province of Terra-Firma Proper, or the iſthmus of Darien, its ſituation, mountains, rivers, mines, climate, produce, &c. *The Scots erected a fortreſs at the mouth of the gulf of Darien, and attempted to plant a colony in that country, but were obliged to abandon the enterpriſe.*

TErra Firma Proper is that country which lies between the gulf of Darien and New Spain,

along the coaſts of the North and South ſeas; being that narrow neck of land which joins North and South America together. By ſome it is called *the iſthmus of Darien*, by others *the iſthmus of Panama*, or of America. It extends in the form of a bow about the noble bay of Panama; being about 300 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth from ſea to ſea; lying between the latitudes of 8 and 10 deg of north latitude, and between 83 and 87 deg. 20 min. of weſt longitude; bounded by the North ſea on the north; by the river and gulf of Darien, which ſeparates it from the province of Carthagena, on the eaſt; by Popayan and the Pacific ocean on the ſouth; by the ſame ſea, and the province of Veragua in New Spain, on the weſt. This noble ſituation, both on the North and South ſeas, as alſo on the confines of North and South America, together with the gold mines, gold ſands, and pearls, with which this province, and the adjacent ſeas are repleniſhed, renders it invaluable, and makes it the darling object of all enterpriſing people; eſpecially as this is the narroweſt land which disjoins the South ſea from the Atlantic ocean.

As there is reaſon, therefore, to believe, (if the war continue, or at leaſt in ſome future period), that an attempt will be made by the Britiſh nation on ſome of the Spaniſh ſettlements on this famous iſthmus, in order to cut off their communication with Peru, and prevent their receiving any treaſures from that part of America from whence they draw the principal part of their riches, we ſhall be therefore more circumſtantial in our deſcription of this province, and give a full account of its two famous cities, and the great trade carried on betwixt them and Old Spain.

The land of this province is almoſt every where of an uneven ſurface, conſiſting of hills and valleys of great

variety,

variety, for height, depth, and extent. The valleys are generally watered with rivers, brooks, and perennial ſprings, ſome of which fall into the North ſea, and others into the South; moſt of them taking their riſe from a chain of hills higher than the reſt, running the whole length of the iſthmus, and in a manner parallel to the ſhore, about fifteen miles diſtant from the North ſea, of which there is a fair and clear view from this main ridge; though the South ſea cannot be diſcovered from any part of them; becauſe on the north ſide of the main ridge, there are either no hills at all, or ſuch as are rather gentle declivities than diſtinct hills; but the country on the ſouth ſide of this ridge is intermixed with conſiderable hills, clothed with lofty trees, that greatly incommode the proſpect, which would otherwiſe be, of the South ſea. The country on the north ſide of theſe mountains is ſo much covered with woods, that it has the appearance of one continued foreſt; nor is the main ridge carried on every where with a diſcontinued ſummit, but is rather a chain of ſeparate hills, and accordingly has ſeveral large valleys, disjoined from the ſeveral eminences that compoſe its length; and theſe valleys not only make the ridge more uſeful and habitable, but ſome of them are ſo deep in their deſcent, as to admit a paſſage for rivers.

Mountains and valleys.

This province being narrow, and lying between two great oceans, is obſerved to have more wet weather, than any other place within the torrid zone. The rains uſually begin in April or May; they are very heavy in June, July, and Auguſt, when it is alſo extremely hot, if the ſun happens to ſhine; becauſe at that time there are no breezes to cool the air. The rains begin to abate in September, but it is November, or December, and ſometimes January, before the fair ſeaſon returns; ſo that the country is wet

for

for near three quarters of a year; but in the wetteſt ſeaſon, there are now and then ſome fair days, with only a tornado, or thunder-ſhower. The floods and torrents cauſed by theſe rains, frequently bear down trees, which obſtruct the courſe of the rivers, and occaſion all the adjacent country to be overflowed: the cooleſt time of the year is after the rains about Chriſtmas, when the fair weather commences.

The principal rivers, that fall into the North ſea, are,

Rivers.

1. The river or gulf of Darien, which is the eaſtern boundary of this province; it riſes in the ſouth, and runs directly north upwards of an hundred miles, falling into the North ſea near Golden iſland, being about twenty miles wide at the mouth; but has not above ſix feet of water in a ſpring-tide; though it be navigable above eighty miles, yet there is very little traffic carried on there, becauſe no veſſels can get over the bar.

2. The river of Conception riſes about the middle of the great chain of mountains, and runs precipitately to the north-weſt, and falls into the ſea, oppoſite to La Sound's key, which is one of the Sambaloe iſlands; it is pretty broad, and makes a good appearance at the mouth, but has alſo a bar, that prevents any veſſels of burden from getting in; however, there is a fine riding-place in the channel at the mouth of this river, between the iſlands and continent, which form a tolerable harbour.

3. The Chagra, or Chagre, is more frequented by navigators than any other in this province; it riſes not far from Panama, and takes a north-weſt courſe, running through very deep winding valleys, and falls into the North ſea about ten leagues weſt of Porto-Bello. By means of this noble river, a communication might be made between the North and South ſeas; and as it is not far from Panama, the

merchandiſes

merchandiſes from that place to Porto-Bello for the galleons are embarked upon this river, except the gold and ſilver, which are carried directly over land upon mules to Porto-Bello.

The moſt conſiderable rivers that fall into the South ſea, are,

1. St Mary's, which has its ſource in the mountains, on the north-eaſt part of the province, runs to the eaſtward, and falls into the gulf of St Michael, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the bay of Panama; it is tolerably large and navigable, but is moſt conſiderable on account of its proximity to the gold mines, and for the beautiful ſtreams which fall into it, in whoſe ſands are found abundance of gold, particularly, in one called *the Golden river*, from whence the Spaniards have in ſome ſeaſons carried off eighteen or twenty thouſand pounds weight of pure gold.

2. The Congo riſes in the eaſt part of the province, and directs its courſe to the ſouth-weſt, almoſt parallel to the former, falling to the northward of it into the ſame gulf of St Michael; there are ſeveral ſtreams which fall into this river both on the eaſt and weſt ſide, which render it navigable for great ſhips within the bar, but is ſo ſhallow at the mouth, that the entrance is made with great difficulty.

3. The Cheapo, which riſes in the mountains near the North ſea, bends its courſe weſtward, and then turns to the ſouth, falling into the bay of Panama, ſeven leagues to the weſtward of the city. It runs a long courſe, and is navigable a great way, but has the ſame misfortune with the reſt, namely, a bar at the mouth.

Both the northern and ſouthern coaſts are well watered with other inferior rivers and ſtreams; beſides, neither of the oceans fall in at once upon the ſhore, but are intercepted by a great many ſmall iſlands, that

that lie ſcattered along each coaſt, of which afterwards.

Although this country in general be very mountainous, yet there are many fine valleys in it, which, where duly cultivated, are abundantly fruitful, and productive of all the fruits, herbs, and plants common to the climate; but its chief importance conſiſts in its advantageous ſituation on both ſeas, the gold ſands in its rivers, and the treaſures of Peru and Chili, which are brought hither in order to be tranſported into Old Spain. Theſe advantages have rendered this place the ſcene of more actions than any other part of America; and have induced ſeveral adventurers to make attempts on Porto-Bello, Panama, and other places.

The Scots attempted to make a ſettlement on the coaſt of Darien, but were obliged to abandon it.

Near the north-weſt point of the gulf of Darien, in 8 deg. 32 min. north latitude, ſtood the fortreſs of New Edinburgh, built by a Scotch colony, in the year 1699, when they attempted to make a ſettlement on the coaſt of Darien, and denominated the country about it New Caledonia. The riſe of this colony was as follows. The parliament of Scotland, in 1695, paſſed an act for erecting a company to trade to Africa and the Indies, whereby the company were authoriſed to plant colonies, and make ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, under his Majeſty's letters patent, which they alſo obtained; in conſequence whereof, both the Engliſh and Hamburgh merchants contributed very largely to this enterpriſe; and equipped ſeveral ſhips, which ſailed with forces, and every thing requiſite to plant a colony on, or near the iſthmus of Darien, in the year 1698. They firſt landed on Golden iſland, at the mouth of the river Darien; but they diſliked that ſituation, and went over to the continent, where they built the fort of Edinburgh, with the permiſſion

permiſſion of the native Indians, who were a free people, and in poſſeſſion of that part of the iſthmus, which extends along the North ſea, from the gulf of Darien, to port Scrivan, being about 140 miles; and from Caret bay, in the ſouth-weſt part of the gulf of Darien, to the head of the river Cheapo on the South ſea about 150 miles, the breadth in ſome places ſixty, and in others 100, and upwards. This territory was governed by eight Indian princes, who were all at war with the Spaniards, and received the Scots into their country with the greateſt ſatisfaction, in hopes of their aſſiſtance againſt their ancient enemies: in conſequence of which, the Scots erected their fortreſs on a moſt excellent harbour, about a league in length from the north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, half a mile broad at the entrance, and upwards of a mile broad within, being large enough to contain 500 ſail of ſhips, untouched from any winds; and the acceſs to the fort was ſo well defended by rocks and precipices, that very little art would have rendered it impregnable. The adjacent country abounded in veniſon and poultry; beſides, the fort ſtood in the neighbourhood of the richeſt gold mines in America; and a communication with the South ſea might eaſily have been opened from thence, by way of the river Darien, and the gulf of St Michael. The Scots thought themſelves extremely fortunate in the diſcovery of this important ſituation, which, they ſay, was unknown to the Spaniards; and their ſettlement at firſt went on in a very proſperous manner: but this was ſoon impeded, by complaints from the court of Madrid to the court of London, declaring, that Darien had long been ſubject to the crown of Spain, and that his Catholic Majeſty ſhould look upon this as an act of hoſtility; the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, at the ſame time, alſo complained againſt this ſettlement, as an infringement of their charter: upon which, the par-

liament of England thought fit to interpoſe, and addreſſed King William to vacate the patent granted to the Scotch company. Agents were alſo ſent by the company to the King, to repreſent that this was no invaſion of the Spaniſh dominions; becauſe they were either never poſſeſſed of that part of the iſthmus; or, if they were, they had been expelled from it by the natives, who were then actually in poſſeſſion of the country, and at war with the Spaniards: but the influence of the court of Spain, and the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, was too powerful for the ſolicitations of the Scotch company, and all meaſures were taken to ruin their ſettlement: the Hamburghers were prevailed on to withdraw their ſubſcriptions, the merchants of London were threatened with miniſterial diſpleaſure, and orders were ſent to the Engliſh plantations, to furniſh the Scots with no proviſions, and to give them no aſſiſtance; upon which, the company were unfortunately compelled to abandon the enterpriſe; though it is univerſally agreed, there is not a ſpot of ground, on the continent of Spaniſh America, that could be of equal ſervice to Great Britain, with the ſituation of New Edinburgh, whenever a rupture happens with Spain; for the Spaniſh treaſures muſt be detained in America, if the iſthmus of Darien were in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh crown. And if ever that happen to be the caſe in any future period, then the Scots might again replant their ancient colony, from which they were ſuffered to be driven ſo injuriouſly. We ſhould there diſcover a new channel of trade, that would be a means of employing and enriching many thouſands of our countrymen, and may perhaps come in for a ſhare of that wealth, which alone preſerves Spain from being the contempt of all Europe.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

A deſcription of the two famous cities of Panama and Porto-Bello. Their trade. The galleons.

THE city of Panama ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the iſthmus of Darien, upon the fineſt and moſt capacious bay of the South ſea, in 80 deg. weſt longitude, and 8 deg. 58 min. of north latitude. The Spaniards owe the firſt diſcovery of it to Tello de Guzman, who landed here in 1515, but found only a few fiſhermens huts, this being a very proper place for their buſineſs; and thence the Indians called it Panama, which in their language ſignifies a place abounding with fiſh. In the year 1518 a colony was ſettled there, and in 1521 the King of Spain conſtituted it a city with the proper privileges.

The town, one of the largeſt in America, is ſaid to contain 6000 houſes elegantly built of brick and ſtone, diſpoſed in a ſemicircular form, and enlivened with the ſpires and domes of ſeveral churches and monaſteries. The city is ſurrounded with a ſtone-wall, fortified with baſtions, and other works, which are planted with great guns, both towards the ſea and land. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Lima; here are eight pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, which is large and elegant; thirty chapels belonging to the convents, which are neat and ſufficiently capacious, with ſeveral monaſteries and nunneries. The country on the land-ſide is agreeably diverſified with hills, valleys, and woods. The town ſtands upon a dry and tolerably healthful ground, and has a great and profitable trade with Peru, Chili, and the weſtern coaſt of New Spain, chiefly for proviſions of every ſort, both of the animal and vegetable kinds; corn, wine, ſugar, oil, with

tallow, leather, *&c.* In the neighbourhood of this city they raiſe little or nothing; and yet, by traffic, and their convenient ſituation, there are few cities more abundantly ſupplied with all things for neceſſity, convenience, or luxury. Their trade with Terra Firma and Europe is carried on over the iſthmus of Darien, and by the river Chagra.

The chief advantage which the new town of Panama has above the old one, is an excellent road for ſmall ſhips, as good as an harbour, being ſheltered by the neighbouring iſlands of Perica, which are three ſmall rocky places lying in a row parallel to the ſhore, two leagues from the town, where the fleet from Lima rides at anchor. The merchants of Panama are generally very rich, and the port is never without a conſiderable number of ſhipping; becauſe it is the grand centre of commerce from Peru and Chili, as well as of the merchandiſes ſent over by the galleons from Spain, to be tranſported to the ſouthern colonies.

Old Panama ſtood about four miles to the eaſtward of this city, but was deſtroyed by the Engliſh bucaneers under the command of Captain Morgan, in 1670, who loaded 200 beaſts with the treaſure he acquired in plundering the city, and returned to Jamaica with no leſs than 71,666 pounds Sterling, where he received the honour of knighthood from King Charles II. for his conduct and bravery; but was afterwards impriſoned in the tower of London, as a ſacrifice to the reſentment of the Spaniſh miniſtry.

Capt. Morgan takes the city of Panama, and plunders it.

When Sir Henry Morgan undertook this expedition againſt Panama, he firſt began with the reduction of the caſtle of Chagra, which ſtood at the mouth of the river upon the North ſea. He left 500 men to garriſon the caſtle, 500 more to take care

care of the fleet; and then embarked 1200 ſelected fellows on board ſuch boats and canoes as he had in the river, which he ſoon found impaſſable for large veſſels, and therefore was obliged to leave his great boats and artillery behind him under a guard, advancing only with the ſmall boats and canoes, ſome of his men going by land, and others by water, who ſuffered intolerable hardſhips both from the heat of the climate, and the want of proviſions. However, after a laborious march of ſix days, they arrived at Venta de Cruz, where the Spaniards embark their goods on this river for Porto-Bello, and continued their march over land, being incommoded by ſeveral parties of the Spaniards, as alſo by ſeveral intermediate moraſſes, and the heavy rains. The bucaneers were met by the governor of Panama, with four regiments of foot, and two ſquadrons of horſe; but the latter were defeated with the loſs of 600 men: after which the brave bucaneers preſſed forward towards the city, ſcaled the walls, and ſoon became maſters of the place, without making the leaſt breach; and what was ſtill more remarkable, without any artillery. They firſt plundered the city, and then ſet it on fire; after which they returned to Venta de Cruz, and conveyed their plunder down the river to the caſtle of Chagra, where they blew up the fortifications, and returned to Jamaica.

After the retreat of Gen. Wentworth from the unſucceſsful expedition againſt St Jago in the iſland of Cuba, towards the latter end of the year 1741, it was propoſed to the council of war held at Jamaica, at which were preſent, Vice-Adm. Vernon, Gen. Wentworth, Sir Chaloner Ogle, Brig.-Gen. Guiſe, and Gov. Trelawney, to make an attempt either upon Guatimala, or Panama; but the latter was agreed upon; and immediately put in execution: it being alſo agreed to convey the troops and artillery up the

Chagra

Chagra to Venta de Cruz. The fleet conſiſted of eight ſail of the line, with three fireſhips, and two hoſpital-ſhips, and forty ſail of tranſports, on board of which were 3000 land-forces, and 500 negroes. Adm. Vernon immediately ſailed into the harbour of Porto-Bello, on March 28. 1742, and met with no oppoſition, though the governor had three companies of Spaniſh ſoldiers, and two of mulattoes and negroes, who abandoned the town; and the magiſtracy ſent deputies to the Admiral, to deſire protection of their perſons and effects, which was formally granted them. But on the 30th of ſaid month it was determined, in a council of war among the land-officers, that, at this juncture, an attempt on Panama was not conſiſtent with his Majeſty's ſervice, and ſhould be therefore laid aſide. Upon which the whole armament returned to Jamaica; though the brave Adm. Vernon was of opinion, that leſs than 1500 men would have been ſufficient for effectuating the enterpriſe againſt Panama, which had been formerly taken by Sir Henry Morgan with leſs force. Had the land-officers in this expedition behaved with as much courage and bravery as the marine officers did, and had they marched over the iſthmus, and attacked the town, in all probability it would have fallen; eſpecially as Lord Anſon was in the South ſeas with a ſquadron, who was waiting for an account of our troops arrival at Panama, and upon notice given, was ready to aſſiſt in bombarding it by ſea with his ſquadron, while the troops were beſieging it by land: but the ſea-officers concluded, that the land-officers had no intention of going to Panama, even before their arrival at Porto-Bello; which greatly diſappointed the two brave admirals, and occaſioned the failure of this important enterpriſe.

The audience of Panama was formerly famous for gold mines, whoſe metal was of the fineſt quality; but,

but, upon the revolt of the Indians, the Spaniards were obliged to abandon them, by which many of theſe mines were loſt, and thoſe that now remain are greatly neglected, through a dread of the natives, who often make incurſions into the mountainous parts, and carry off or deſtroy every thing they find.

Gold mines, and pearl-fiſhery.

But this loſs of the mines is amply compenſated by the multitude of pearls found in the oyſters of its gulf; and particularly thoſe near a cluſter of iſlands forming a little archipelago. The firſt European to whom the Indians made this valuable diſcovery, was Balboa, who, in paſſing this way to extend his diſcoveries in the South ſea, was preſented with ſome large pearls by Tomaco an Indian prince. At preſent they are found in ſuch plenty, that there are few perſons of ſubſtance at Panama, who do not employ part of their ſlaves in this fiſhery, which is carried on in the following manner.

The manner of fiſhing the pearls.

The negroes who are employed in it, muſt be very expert ſwimmers, and capable of holding their breath a conſiderable time. Theſe repair to the iſlands, where they have huts built for their lodging, and boats capable of holding eight, ten, or twenty negroes, under the command of an officer. In theſe boats they go to ſuch parts as are known to produce pearls, and where the depth of the water does not exceed ten, twelve, or at moſt fifteen fathoms. Here they come to an anchor, and the negroes having one end of a rope faſtened round their bodies, and the other to the ſide of the boat, take with them a weight to facilitate their ſinking, and plunge into the water. On reaching the bottom they take up an oyſter, and put it under their left arm, the ſecond they hold in their left hand, and the third in their right; with theſe three oyſters, and ſometimes with a fourth in their mouth, they riſe to breathe, and put them into a bag;

when

when they have reſted themſelves a little, and recovered their breath, they dive a ſecond time, and thus continue, till they have completed their taſk, or their ſtrength fails them. Every one of theſe divers is obliged to deliver his maſter a certain fixed number of pearls daily; ſo that when he has got the requiſite number of oyſters in his bag, he begins to open them, and delivers the pearls to the officer, till he has made up the number due to his maſter; and if the pearl be but formed, it is ſufficient, without any regard to its being ſmall or faulty. The remainder, however large and beautiful, are the negro's own property; nor has the maſter the leaſt claim to them, the ſlave being allowed to ſell them to whom he pleaſes; though his maſter generally purchaſes them at a very ſmall expenſe.

Some of theſe pearls (which are generally very fine, and ſome very remarkable both for their ſhape and ſize) are ſent to Europe; but the greateſt part of them is carried to Lima, where the demand for them is very great, being worn by all perſons of rank, both in that city and the inland parts of the country.

The town of Porto-Bello.

The next town of note in this famous iſthmus, is St Philip de Porto-Bello, the place where the galleons take on board the treaſures produced by the mines of South America. It lies in the latitude of 9 deg. 34 min. north, and in 80 deg. 45 min. weſt longitude. This famous harbour was diſcovered on the 2d of November 1502, by Chriſtopher Columbus, who was ſo charmed with its capacity, depth, and ſecurity, that he called it *Porto-Bello*, or *the fine harbour*. Is was however neglected, till the year 1584, when the inhabitants of Nombre de Dios, ſituated about twenty miles eaſt of Porto-Bello on the ſame coaſt, were commanded by King Philip II. to remove to Porto-

Bello,

Bello, as being much better ſituated for the commerce of that country.

The town of Porto-Bello ſtands near the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain, which ſurrounds the whole harbour. Moſt of the houſes are built entirely of wood; but the firſt ſtory of ſome is of ſtone, and the reſt of wood. They are in general very large and ſpacious, and amount to about 130 in number. The town conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, extending along the ſtrand, with others ſmaller croſſing it, and running from the declivity of the mountain to the ſhore, together with ſome lanes running in the ſame direction with the principal ſtreet, where the ground will admit of it. It has two large ſquares, one contiguous to the quay, having one ſide of it formed by the cuſtomhouſe, which is a large ſtructure of ſtone; the other faces the great church, which is alſo of ſtone, ſufficiently large, and decently ornamented.

Beſides this, there are two other ſtructures, one called *Nueſtra Signora de la Merced*, belonging to a convent of the ſame order, and the other *St Julian de Dios*. The latter bears the title of a hoſpital, and was founded as ſuch; but now it is far from being ſo in reality. The church of la Merced is of ſtone, but very mean and ruinous, like the convent, which is ſo much decayed, that the religious, for want of conveniencies, live in the town diſperſed in private houſes. That of St Julian de Dios, is alſo a ſmall building in no better condition than La Merced.

At the eaſt end of the town, which is the road to Panama, is a quarter called *Guinea*, from being the place where all the negroes of both ſexes, whether ſlaves or free, have their habitations. This quarter is very much crouded when the galleons are in the harbour, moſt of the inhabitants quitting their houſes for the advantage of letting them. The mulattoes, and other poor families alſo remove either to Guinea,

or to cottages erected near it, on this occaſion. Great numbers of artificers from Panama likewiſe, who then flock to Porto-Bello to work at their reſpective callings, lodge in this quarter for cheapneſs.

The harbour of Porto-Bello is very commodious for all ſorts of ſhips and veſſels, affording them both good anchoring and convenient ſhelter; being about three miles long and one broad, defended with high hills. There are twenty fathoms water at the entrance of the port toward the north coaſt, fourteen on the ſouth, and about ten in the midſt of the harbour all the way: and though the entrance is very broad, it is well defended by Fort St Philip de Todo Fierro, or the iron caſtle. This caſtle ſtands on the north point of the entrance, which is about 600 fathoms broad; but the ſouth ſide being full of rocks extending to ſome diſtance from the ſhore, every ſhip is obliged to keep pretty near the caſtle, where there are from nine to fifteen fathoms water, and the bottom of clayey mud mixed with ſand.

On the ſouth ſide of the harbour, and oppoſite to the anchoring-place, is a large caſtle called *St Jago de la Gloria*; about 100 fathoms to the eaſtward of which the town begins, having before it a point of land projecting into the ſea: and on this point is a ſmall fort called *St Jerome*. But both theſe forts were deſtroyed by Adm. Vernon in the year 1742.

To the north-weſt of this place, is a little bay called *La Caldera*, or *the Kettle*, having four fathoms and a half of water, and is a proper place for careening of ſhips, being perfectly defended from all winds.

Among the mountains which ſurround the whole harbour of Porto-Bello, one is particularly remarkable for its ſuperior altitude, and, like the Table-hill at the Cape of Good Hope, performs the part of a natural barometer, by foretelling every change of

weather.

weather. This mountain, diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Capiro*, ſtands at the extremity of the harbour in the road to Panama. Its top is always covered with clouds of a denſity and darkneſs ſeldom ſeen in this climate: when theſe clouds thicken, increaſe in darkneſs, and ſink below their uſual ſtation, it is the ſure ſign of a tempeſt; while, on the other hand, their clearneſs and aſcent as certainly indicate the approach of fair weather. However, it is to be obſerved, that theſe changes are very frequent and very ſubitaneous; nor is the ſummit hardly ever obſerved free from clouds, and when this does happen, it is of very ſhort duration. The town is under the juriſdiction of a governor, with the title of lieutenant-general, as being ſuch under the preſident of Panama, but his power is limited to the town and forts.

The inclemency of the climate of Porto-Bello is well known all over Europe. Not only ſtrangers who come hither are affected with it, but even the natives themſelves. It deſtroys the vigour of nature, and often cuts the thread of life untimely. The heat is exceſſive, being augmented with the ſituation of the town, which is ſurrounded with high mountains, without any intervals to admit the refreſhing gales. The trees on the mountains ſtand ſo thick, that they intercept the rays of the ſun, and, conſequently, from drying the ground under their branches; hence copious exhalations ariſe, which form large clouds, and precipitate in violent torrents of rain; but theſe are no ſooner over, than the ſun breaks forth afreſh, and ſhines with his former ſplendour; though the activity of his rays has ſcarce dried the ſurface not covered by the trees, than the atmoſphere is again crouded with another collection of thick vapours, and the ſun again concealed; and in this manner it continues during the whole day: the night is alſo ſubject to the ſame viciſſitudes, but without any diminution

of the heat in either. Theſe torrents of rain are often accompanied with ſuch tempeſts of thunder and lightning, as muſt ſtrike even the moſt undaunted with terror; and this dreadful noiſe is prolonged by repercuſſions from the caverns in the mountains, like the exploſion of cannons, the rumbling of which is heard for a minute after. To which may alſo be added the hideous howlings of the tygers, and ſhrieks of the multitude of monkeys of all kinds, which live in the foreſts of the mountains.

There is another great inconvenience attending the ſituation of this town: for as the foreſts border almoſt on the houſes, the tygers often make incurſions into the ſtreets during the night, carrying off fowls, dogs, and domeſtic animals; even children have often fallen a prey to theſe ravenous animals. Serpents are alſo very numerous, and remarkably deſtructive. But the number of toads exceeds any thing of that kind hitherto known. When it has rained more than common in the night, the ſtreets and ſquares in the morning are paved with theſe vile reptiles; ſo that one cannot ſtep without treading on them, which is ſometimes productive of troubleſome bites; for, beſides their poiſon, they are large enough for their teeth to be ſeverely felt. They are very large, and their number is ſo great, that nothing can be imagined more diſmal than their diſagreeable croakings during the night-ſeaſon, in all parts of the town, woods, and caverns of the mountains.

On theſe accounts the number of the inhabitants of Porto-Bello is very inconſiderable; and the greateſt part of theſe are negroes and mulattoes, there being ſcarce thirty white families in the whole place; it being the conſtant practice for every one to remove to Panama, or elſewhere, as ſoon as their ſucceſs in trade enables them to quit the buſy ſcenes of life; ſo that thoſe only ſtay here, who are obliged to it by

their

their circumſtances or employments. But this almoſt deſolate town becomes, at the time of the galleons, one of the moſt populous places in all South America. Its ſituation on the iſthmus between the North and South ſeas, the goodneſs of its harbour, and its ſmall diſtance from Panama, have given it the preference to every other part of the continent, for the rendezvous of the joint commerce of Spain and Peru at its fair.

As ſoon as advice is received at Carthagena, that the Peru fleet is arrived at Panama, and landed its goods, the galleons make the beſt of their way to Porto-Bello, and the concourſe of people on this occaſion is ſo great, that the rent of lodgings riſes to an exceſſive degree. A middling chamber with a cloſet lets, during the time of the fair, for a thouſand crowns, and ſome large houſes for four, five, or ſix thouſand.

The fleet which is called *the galleons*, conſiſts of about eight men of war, of three or four decks each, and mounted with fifty guns, deſigned principally to ſuppply Peru and the other parts of South America with military ſtores; but in reality laden not only with theſe, but with every other kind of merchandiſe on a private account; ſo as to be in a bad condition for defending themſelves, if attacked, or for protecting the reſt of the fleet under their convoy, which amount to fourteen or fifteen merchant-ſhips not inferior in burden to the men of war. In time of peace this fleet ſails regularly once a-year from Cadiz, though at no ſet time, but according to the King's pleaſure, and the conveniency of the merchants. The fleet of galleons is regulated in much the ſame manner with the flota, and is deſigned for the excluſive commerce of Terra Firma and the South ſea, as the flota is for that of New Spain and the Philippines *,

The galleons.

* See above, p. 142.

The

The commodities on board theſe galleons for the uſe of South America conſiſt in all kinds of linens and cottons, woollen and ſilk manufactures, hard and haberdaſhery wares, and in general all neceſſaries for the uſe of mankind, whereby a large profit is obtained, ſome of them producing 300 *per cent.* and others 100 or 150.

The galleons ſail in conjunction with the flota, till they arrive at the Antilles, when they ſeparate; the latter ſteering for La Vera Cruz, while the other make the beſt of their way to the road of Carthagena, where they remain generally a month, and land all the goods deſigned for the audience of Terra Firma.

Their next courſe, as was formerly obſerved, is to Porto-Bello; and the ſhips are no ſooner moored in the harbour, than the ſailors erect in the ſquare a large tent made of the ſhips ſails, for receiving the cargo; at which the proprietors of the goods are preſent, in order to find their reſpective bales, by the marks which diſtinguiſh them. Theſe bales are drawn on ſledges from the landing-place to the ſquare by the crews of every ſhip; and the money given them for this labour is equally divided among them.

While the ſeamen and European traders are thus employed, the road from Panama is crouded with droves of mules, each caravan conſiſting of upwards of a hundred, loaded with cheſts of gold and ſilver on account of the merchants of Peru. Some unload them at the cuſtomhouſe, others in the middle of the ſquare; yet, amidſt all the hurry and confuſion of ſuch ſwarms of people, no theft, loſs, or diſturbance, is ever known. He who has ſeen Porto-Bello at other times, ſolitary, poor, and a perpetual ſilence reigning every where, the harbour quite empty, and every place wearing a melancholy aſpect, muſt be filled with aſtoniſhment at the ſudden change, to behold the buſtling multitudes, every houſe

crouded

crouded with inhabitants, the ſquare and the ſtreet encumbered with bales and cheſts of gold and ſilver; the harbour full of ſhips and veſſels; ſome bringing by way of the river Chagra the goods of Peru, and others coming from Carthagena loaded with proviſions; and thus a ſpot at all other times deteſted for its pernicious climate, becomes the ſtaple of the riches of the old and new world, and the ſcene of one of the moſt conſiderable branches of commerce on the whole globe.

The ſhips being unloaded, and the merchants of Peru, together with the preſident of Panama, arrived, the fair comes under deliberation. Accordingly the deputies of the ſeveral parties repair on board the commodore of the galleons, where, in preſence of the commodore and preſident of Panama, the former as patron of the Europeans, and the latter of the Peruvians, the prices of the ſeveral kinds of merchandiſes are ſettled; and all preliminaries being adjuſted, the contracts are ſigned, and made public, that every one may conform himſelf to them in the ſale of his effects; thus all fraud is precluded. The whole buſineſs is tranſacted by brokers from Spain and Peru; and when the goods are diſpoſed of, the Spaniſh brokers embark their cheſts of money on board the galleons, and thoſe of Peru on board veſſels called *chatas* and *bangos*, ſending them up the river Chagra; and thus the fair of Porto-Bello ends.

During the time of the fair, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the diſplay of the gold, ſilver, pearls, and precious ſtones, on the one hand; and of all the curioſity and variety of the ingenious fabrics of Europe, on the other, is aſtoniſhing. Heaps of wedges of gold and ſilver are tumbled about on the wharfs like common things, or as ſo many bars of iron or lead.

Before the departure of the fleet from this harbour, the ſhips are viſited by the royal officers, who are to

ſee

ſee that nothing goes on board but what has paid the fifth to the King; though this is no more than a matter of form; becauſe there is always an underſtanding between them and the merchants; ſo that ſcarce more than the half of the gold, ſilver, and other rich merchandiſe embarked for Spain, is declared: beſides, upon arrival of the fleet in Spain, the European officers are as deſtitute of integrity as thoſe in America, and ſhut their eyes againſt the unloading of ſhips.

When this fleet takes leave of Porto-Bello, they firſt ſail to Carthagena, and then ſteer together to the Havannah, which is the place of rendezvous of all the ſhips concerned in the Spaniſh American trade *.

It muſt be allowed, that although Porto-Bello be an unwholeſome place, yet it is of the laſt importance to the Spaniards; and notwithſtanding all the pains they have taken to fortify it, yet there are few places that have more frequently fallen into the hands of an enemy. In the year 1595, before the town was half built, it was taken and ranſomed by the celebrated Sir Francis Drake, who died there. It was alſo taken in 1601 by Capt. Parker; in 1669 by Sir Henry Morgan; in 1678 by Capt. Croxon; and in 1742, when it was ſtrongly fortified and well garriſoned, it fell an eaſy prey to the brave Adm. Vernon.

There are many other pretty towns in this province, pleaſantly ſituated both on the North and South ſeas, as alſo on the banks of the rivers, but none of ſuch conſideration as to merit a particular deſcription, the

* The cargo which this great fleet carries home to Spain conſiſts chiefly in gold and ſilver, precious ſtones of various ſorts, Vigonia wool, Jeſuits bark, raw hides, logwood, cochineal, indigo, and other die-ſtuffs, chocolate, ſugars, tobacco, and many kinds of drugs, *&c.* *&c.* and the whole value of this cargo is ſaid not to fall ſhort of ſeven millions Sterling.

trade

trade being wholly confined to the two already deſcribed.

CHAP. X.

A deſcription of the ſeveral iſlands on the coaſts of Terra Firma, both in the North and South ſeas.

THE principal iſlands along the ſea-coaſts of Terra Firma, are, 1. Gorgonilla. 2. Gallo. 3. Gorgona. 4. Palmas; and, 5. King's iſlands, or Pearl-keys. Theſe are ſituated in the South ſeas. In the North ſeas, are, 1. The Baſtimentoes. 2. The Samballas. 3. The iſle of Pines. 4. Golden iſland. 5. Tortuga. 6. Forta. 7. Friend's iſland. 8. Baru. 9. Arenas. 10. Monjes. 11. Aruba. 12. Curacao. 13. Bonaire. 14. Tortuga. 15. Margaretta. 16. Trinity; and, 17. The Oroonoko iſlands.

1. The iſland of Gorgonilla lies in 77 deg. 46 min. weſt longitude, and 2 deg. 20 min. north latitude, oppoſite to Point Manglares, on the coaſt of Popayan, and about ſeven leagues ſouth-weſt from the continent. This iſland is ſmall, but has a river where ſhips may water, and anchor on a clean ground. Gorgonilla.

2. The iſland of Gallo lies in a deep bay, about ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Gorgonilla, in 2 deg. 40 min. north latitude. There is good riding for ſhips in the north-eaſt part of the bay; and the land is pretty high, well ſupplied with excellent timber, as alſo with ſeveral ſprings of freſh water; beſides, there are ſome other ſandy bays, where ſhips may be cleaned, but the water is ſhallow all round the iſland. Gallo.

3. The iſland Gorgona lies about ſeven leagues north-eaſt of Gallo, and about eight from the continent, in 3 deg. 5 min. north latitude; Gorgona,

titude; it is about ſix miles long and three broad; the water round it is deep, and no anchoring, but at the weſt end, where there is a ſmall ſandy bay, and convenient landing. The ſoil is black and deep in the low ground; though it is a kind of red clay on the declivity of the high land. The iſland is very well furniſhed with ſeveral ſorts of large trees, which are green and flouriſhing all the year; for the rains are almoſt uninterrupted hereabouts; and many ſmall brooks iſſue from the high land. Here are a great many black monkeys, Indian coneys, and ſome ſnakes. At the eaſt and weſt ends are two other ſmall iſlands, which appear white with the dung of wild fowls. Here are found plenty of pearl-oyſters, which grow to the rocks in four, five, or ſix fathoms water.

Palmas.

4. Palmas lies about two leagues weſt from the continent, and about nineteen north-eaſt from Gorgona; but all theſe iſlands are uninhabited, though they have been frequently viſited by the bucaneers, and other adventurers, to take in wood and water, careen their ſhips, and wait for Spaniſh prizes; becauſe theſe iſlands lie directly in the way from Peru to Panama.

King's iſlands.

5. The King's iſlands, or Pearl-keys, are a numerous cluſter of ſmall iſlands, almoſt in the middle of the bay of Panama, ſtretching about fourteen leagues in length from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt. The moſt northerly of them, called *Pachea*, is about twelve leagues ſouth-eaſt of Panama; and the moſt ſoutherly, called *St Paul*, is twelve leagues north-weſt of point Garachina. The whole range of this archipelago is generally about ſeven leagues diſtant from the main land of Darien. Betwixt them and the main is a channel ſix or ſeven leagues wide, where there is a good depth of water, and anchoring all the way. Theſe iſlands are of great uſe to the mariners who frequent the South ſeas; and

though

though they are uninhabited, yet the citizens of Panama, to whom they belong, ſend their negroes here to plant and cultivate them at proper ſeaſons, as alſo to ſow rice in ſome of the ſmall iſlands; but the large ones are wholly uncultivated, and over-run with trees and weeds; notwithſtanding their ſoil ſeems productive of any tropical vegetables.

Commodore Anſon wooded and watered at one of theſe iſlands called *Quito*, in December 1741, in his way from Paita to Acapulco.

2. The iſlands of Terra Firma, along the coaſt of the North ſea, are as follows.

The Baſtimentoes.

1. The Baſtimentoes are a few ſmall uninhabited iſlands at the mouth of the bay of Nombre de Dios, about half a mile from the coaſt of Terra Firma, and about twenty miles eaſt of Porto-Bello. They are all pretty high, and clothed with woods; there is alſo a ſpring of good water upon one of them; and they form a very good harbour between them and the iſthmus; but are moſt remarkable for being the ſtation of the Britiſh ſquadron, commanded by Adm. Hoſier in 1726, who continued there a long time in a ſtate of inaction, till the ſhips were almoſt rotten, numbers of his men dead by reaſon of the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate, and want of neceſſary proviſions; and what was moſt amazing, his order reſtricted him from taking or deſtroying the Spaniſh fleets; which ſo affected him, that it is commonly ſaid it broke his heart, and he ſoon after died. It is to be wiſhed that the particulars of this ſtory were razed out of the Britiſh annals, and blotted out of the remembrance of this nation.

The Samballas.

2. The Samballas, or Samballoes, are a great number of little uninhabited iſlands, ſcattered in a row, at very unequal diſtances, along the eaſt part of the iſthmus, from Nombre de Dios to the iſle of Pines; ſome of

them being three or four miles from the ſhore, others leſs, and the ſame diſtance from each other; which, with the hills and woods of the adjacent ſhore, make a delightful landſcape off at ſea. Theſe iſlands afford great variety of timber, plenty of freſh water, with great abundance of ſhell-fiſh; as alſo good anchorage, and convenient places for careening; on which account the Samballoes were the greateſt rendezvous of the bucaneers on this coaſt.

The iſland of Pines.

3. The iſland of Pines is a ſmall uninhabited place, about three leagues eaſt of the Samballoes, and is very remarkable off at ſea; being covered with tall trees, and having a fine rivulet of freſh water.

Golden iſland.

4. Golden iſland lies at the mouth of the gulf of Darien, about four leagues eaſt of the iſle of Pines. It is ſmall, ſteep, and rocky, covered with trees or ſhrubs, and uninhabited; having a fine deep channel between it and the continent. This iſland was recommended to the Scotch Eaſt-India company, as a proper place for eſtabliſhing their firſt colony in America; but the adventurers found it too barren a ſpot, and therefore removed to the oppoſite coaſt on the continent.

5. 6. 7. 8. Tortuga, Forta, Friend's iſland, Baru, are four little iſlands lying ſcattered among ſome others, at a ſmall diſtance from each other, in 9 deg. 48 min. north latitude. 9. The iſland of Arenas lies oppoſite to the mouth of the river Magdalena, about ten leagues north of the continent. 10. Monjes are ſmall iſlands at the mouth of the gulf of Venezuela. But none of all theſe are inhabited, or of any conſequence.

The little Antilles iſlands.

11. 12. 13. 14. Aruba, Curacao, Bonaire, and Tortuga, with Magaretta, Trinity, and ſome other inferior iſlands, ſuch as Orchilla, Roca, and Aves, are what properly

perly form the little Antilles iſlands, lying between the latitude of 9 deg. 37 min. and 12 deg. 38 min. north, and between 51 deg. 28 min. and 69 deg. 40 min. weſt longitude, extending from the gulf of Venezuela to that of Paria; ſome of them being about forty leagues from the coaſt of Venezuela, and others very near it; but none of them are poſſeſſed by the Spaniards except Margaretta and Trinity; the reſt being ſubject to the Dutch, ſo we ſhall not treat of them here.

15. The iſland Margaretta, or Santa Margaretta de la Caraccas, is ſituated between 64 deg. and 64 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, and between 10 deg. 54 min. and 11 deg. 15. min. north latitude, oppoſite to the gulf of Caraca, on the coaſt of the Caraccas, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtreight about ſeven or eight leagues over. It is about forty-eight miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-four in breadth, and 108 in circuit; and was diſcovered by Columbus in 1498, when he made his third voyage to America. The climate is ſaid to be unhealthy, from the frequent fogs with which the iſland is covered. Margaretta.

It produces Indian corn, with the uſual fruits of the torrid zone. The north parts are highland, and have a ſoil proper for ſugar-canes, tobacco, *&c.* Here are ſeveral ſorts of animals, particularly wild hogs, with fiſh and fowl; but the inhabitants are obliged to import all the water they drink from the continent. This iſland is under the command of a particular governor, who reſides at the town of Monpadre, which is ſituated on the eaſt cape, and defended by a fort; however, in the year 1620, it was taken by the Dutch, who demoliſhed the caſtle, and plundered the town; upon which the Spaniards retired to the continent, leaving the iſland to be inhabited only by the native Indians, and a few mulattoes.

This

This island was formerly famous for an excellent pearl-fishery, which seems at present either to be exhausted, or neglected.

Trinity. 16. The island of Trinity, Trinidad, or Trinidada, is situated near the mouth of the Oroonoko river, opposite to the east end of the province of New Andalusia; from which it is distant about three leagues, and 38 south-east of Margaretta. It is about eighty or ninety miles in length, and sixty in breadth, lying between 9 deg. 37 min. and 10 deg. 27 mn. north latitude, between 60 deg. 26 min. and 62 deg. 20 min. west longitude; the north end of it being about twelve leagues south-east of Tobago, one of the neutral islands.

The climate is insalubrious, the island being very often covered with thick fogs; the soil, however, is tolerably fruitful, producing sugar, cotton, Indian corn and fruits, with the best tobacco that is cultivated by the Spaniards; besides, it abounds with wild hogs and fowls. The principal town is called *St Joseph*; which stands on a bay at the north-west part of the island; which was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595; as also by the French in 1676, who plundered the place, and extorted upwards of 14,000 pounds Sterling, to ransom it from the flames.

The Oroonoko islands. 17. The islands of Oroonoko are several small islands, lying in the mouth of that river, but none of them are inhabited.

All along the coast of Terra Firma, from Carthagena to Venezuela, are several pearl-fisheries; particularly those of St Martha, Rancheria, on the coast of Rio de la Hacha; Comanagotta in the gulf of Curiaco, *&c.* where the time of the fishery is from October to March; when ten or twelve barks sail from Carthagena, escorted by some men of war called *the Armadilla*; and these ships having made their tour, re-

turn

turn again to Carthagena, which is the centre of the pearl-trade.

CHAP. XI.

Of the different countries in South America, which are ſtill poſſeſſed by the native Indians. A deſcription of Terra Magellanica, with its bays and iſlands. An account of the Indians of Chili, and of the country of the Amazons; as alſo of the Indians of Terra Firma and Guiana.

THE countries in America which are already under the dominion of the Spaniards are of ſuch great compaſs, and afford ſuch immenſe riches, that they have no ſtrong temptations to extend their conqueſts, or to increaſe their diſcoveries, having much more land than what they are able to convert to utility; the greateſt part of their American dominions being covered with impenetrable foreſts, and are ſuffered to continue in a rude and uncultivated ſtate, for want of hands to clear the woods, and improve the luxuriant ſoil. Beſides, the Spaniards are in general ſo indolent and inactive, and truſt ſo much to their mines of gold and ſilver, that they greatly neglect the neceſſary buſineſs of cultivation; and their dominions are already ſo immenſely large, that ſeveral centuries muſt expire before they can be able, in any meaſure, to people and improve them. The ſame may be aſſerted of the Portugueſe ſettlements in Brazil, which are both vaſtly extenſive and immenſely rich. Yet it is certain, that there is a very large tract of country in South America altogether undiſcovered, or at leaſt unpoſſeſſed by any European nation.

The people poſſeſſed of theſe parts are not only deſcendents from the original inhabitants, but alſo conſiſt of great numbers of other Indians, who have

ſheltered

ſheltered themſelves in theſe uncultivated countries from the cruelties of the Spaniards and Portugueſe; nor is there any juſt reaſon to ſuppoſe they will be ſoon conquered, unleſs the miſſionaries extend their power over all theſe in the ſame manner as they have ſubdued the natives of Paraguay.

Thoſe territories of South America which are ſtill poſſeſſed by the Indians are, Patagonia, Terra Magellanica, and the iſlands adjacent, part of Paraguay, Chili, and Peru, the whole country of the Amazons, with part of Guiana and Terra Firma.

Terra Magellanica.

1. Terra Magellanica and Patagonia comprehend a great tract of territory, extending from Rio de la Plata to the utmoſt extremity of South America, that is, from the 35th to the 54th deg. of ſouth latitude; but it is not ſo eaſy to aſcertain its bounds on the weſt, as ſome make the kingdom of Chili to reach to the Magellanic ſtreights; however, as the Spaniards have no ſettlements on that coaſt beyond 44 or 45 degrees, all that lies to the ſouth muſt be included in this tract, which is therefore bounded by Chili and the South ſea on the north and weſt, by the ſouthern ocean on the ſouth, and by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt. Its length from north to ſouth is upwards of 1000 miles, and its breadth towards the north about 530, but much more contracted towards the ſouth. This country was firſt diſcovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe in the ſervice of Spain, who communicated his name to the country, and the ſtreights, by which he found a paſſage into the South ſeas.

It is to be obſerved, that the name of Patagonia is ſometimes given to all the eaſtern coaſt of this part of the country, from the Spaniſh ſettlements to the ſtreights of Magellan.

Although the territory to the northward of the river Plate is full of wood, and ſtored with immenſe

quantities

quantities of large timber trees, yet no trees of any kind are to be met with to the ſouthward of that river, which is a peculiarity not to be parallelled in any other known part of the globe; and Sir John Narborough, who viſited this country in 1670, obſerves, that he never ſaw a ſtick of wood in it large enough to make the handle of a hatchet.

But though the country is deſtitute of wood, it abounds with paſture, the land in general appearing to be made up of downs, of a light, dry, gravelly ſoil, and producing a great quantity of long coarſe graſs, which grows in tufts, interſperſed with large barren ſpots of gravel between them. This graſs in many places feeds very numerous herds of black cattle, which were firſt brought over by the Spaniards on their eſtabliſhing themſelves in Paraguay, and they are increaſed ſo much that they are not conſidered as private property, but many thouſands at a time are ſlaughtered every year by the hunters of Buenos Ayres only for their hides and tallow, and ſometimes they take theſe cattle alive in nooſes for the uſes of agriculture. The country is alſo over-run with horſes originally brought there by the Spaniards, which run wild like the black cattle. Theſe herds of wild cattle and droves of horſes may increaſe ſo much as to fill all the ſouthern parts of this continent with their breed, which muſt prove of conſiderable advantage, to ſuch ſhips as touch upon the coaſt. Here are likewiſe plenty of Peruvian ſheep, with great abundance of ſeals and ſea-fowls, among the moſt remarkable of which are penguins.

This country is inhabited by ſeveral different nations of Indians, but they are very imperfectly known, and have ſeldom been ſeen above two or three at a time, by any ſhips that have touched upon the coaſt, though towards Buenos Ayres they are numerous enough to be very troubleſome to the Spaniards. The

Pampas ſeem to inhabit a conſiderable part towards the north, and the Patagons another towards the ſouth, who received this name from Magellan, on account of their gigantic ſtature. The Ceſſares are ſituated between the Pampas and the Patagons, extending weſtward beyond the Andes, and are ſuppoſed to be the deſcendents of ſome Spaniards, who were ſhipwrecked upon the coaſt in 1540, where they intermixed with the Indians, and have formed themſelves into a kind of republic.

There are a great many iſlands all along the coaſts of this country, the largeſt and moſt conſiderable of which lies on the ſouthern ſide; thoſe on the eaſt are inconſiderable, nor are thoſe on the weſt of any conſequence.

On the eaſtern coaſt are the following iſlands.

Pepy's iſland.

1. Pepy's iſland, which is ſituated in 64 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, and 47 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, about 55 miles eaſt of Cape Blanco on the continent. It was diſcovered by Capt. Cowley in 1686, who repreſents it as a commodious place for ſhips to wood and water at; he alſo ſays, that it is provided with a very good harbour, where a thouſand ſhips may ride at anchor in great ſafety.

2. The iſle of Penguins lies about three leagues from the ſhore, and eighteen ſouth of Cape Blanco.

3. The three iſlands of Sebaeld de Werds lie in 67 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, 51 deg. ſouth latitude, about fifty-three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Port St Julian.

4. Falkland's iſles, ſomewhat to the ſouth-weſt of Sebaeld de Werds. Theſe iſlands have been ſeen by ſeveral navigators, and particularly by Woods Rogers, who run along the north-eaſt coaſt of them in 1708, and ſays, that they extended about 120 miles in length, appearing with gentle deſcents from hill to hill,

hill, and ſeeming to be good ground, interſperſed with trees, and not deſtitute of harbours.

The moſt conſiderable iſlands on the ſouthern coaſt are,

1. The iſland called *Staten*, from its having been firſt diſcovered by the Dutch, is about ſeven leagues to the eaſtward of Terra del Fuego, being divided from it by the ſtreights of La Maire, which received this name from the firſt diſcoverer in 1615. Theſe ſtreights are reckoned to be the boundary between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and are between five and ſix leagues in length, through which Commodore Anſon made his paſſage into the South ſeas, inſtead of paſſing through the ſtreights of Magellan, which are above 100 leagues in length from the Cape of Virgins at the entrance of the North ſea, to the Cape of Deſire at the oppoſite extremity, and in ſome places thirty leagues over between the iſland of Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, though in others not more than a league or two. The iſland of Staten.

The iſland of Staten is about thirty miles long and ſixteen broad, having great wildneſs and horror in its appearance; for it ſeems to be entirely compoſed of rocks, without the leaſt mixture of mould or earth between them.

2. Terra del Fuego, or land of fire, was ſo called by the firſt diſcoverers, on account of ſome vulcanoes, which emitted great quantities of fire and ſmoke. It is ſituated between 60 deg. 40 min. and 69 deg. 20 min. of weſt longitude, and between 52 deg. 30 min. and 56 deg. of ſouth latitude, being about 400 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 220 in breadth. This iſland is rough and mountainous, but has ſeveral fertile plains and paſture-grounds, watered with a multitude of fine ſprings that deſcend from the moun- Terra del Fuego.

tains. There are ſeveral bays and roads between this and the adjacent iſlands; but the weſterly winds are extremely violent and impetuous along the ſouth coaſt, eſpecially in the winter-ſeaſon, ſo that thoſe who ſail to the weſtward muſt be careful to keep as much to the ſouth of them as poſſible, at leaſt to the latitudes of 61 or 62 degrees; and the only proper ſeaſon for ſailing round this ſouthern extremity into the South ſeas is in the months of December and January. But the perſon who wants more particular information of this matter, may conſult the relation of Lord Anſon's voyage round the world, book 1. chap. 9. where he will find excellent directions for that purpoſe.

The inhabitants of this iſland are naturally as white as the Europeans, but go naked, and paint their bodies with a variety of colours. Thoſe on the ſouth ſide are very uncivilized, cunning, and barbarous; but thoſe on the other ſide are reported to be poor, harmleſs, and affable people. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands lying between Staten iſland and Cape Horn, as alſo all along the coaſt from Cape Horn as far as Chili, but none of any conſequence; the whole of this ſouthern extremity being a cold, ſterile, and inhoſpitable country, ſubject to terrible ſtorms and tempeſts, and inhabited by a race of ſavages little ſuperior to the brute creation, being void of all religion, laws, or humanity.

2. That part of Chili which is in poſſeſſion of the native Indians, compoſes a very extenſive territory on both ſides of the Andes, inhabited by ſeveral diſtinct tribes or nations. We formerly obſerved, that ſome of the Chileſian Indians were under tributary ſubjection to the Spaniards, but the greateſt part retain their original independency.

The free Indians are very numerous, and inhabit the greateſt part of the country, eſpecially towards the

the mountains. They are the braveſt people of all the natives of America, ſtrong in body and intrepid in mind, conſtant in their reſolutions, and prodigal of loſing life when they think it neceſſary to be hazarded for glory or liberty. Their habitations are only huts, made of the branches of trees, their furniture is coarſe, and their diet plain. Their apparel is a ſort of waiſtcoat of woollen ſtuff, with drawers of the ſame, that come down to their knees, and they have a kind of cloak or mantle when they go abroad, but uſe no linen under their cloaths. On their heads they wear caps of different kinds, on each ſide of which is a plume of feathers about half a yard high.

They have the ſame way of keeping accounts, remarking particular events, and conveying traditional intelligence, as in uſe among the ancient Peruvians. The people are governed by their particular chiefs, called *ulmens* and *curacens*, who claim no authority but in the adminiſtration of juſtice, and commanding their tribes in time of war; having neither palaces nor revenues, nor any other marks of reſpect paid them, except in the execution of their office; but they manage the whole affairs of their nation in certain general aſſemblies, where every queſtion is decided by a majority of voices.

Their religious tenets are full of abſurdities, and their conceptions of the immortality of the ſoul are very imperfect; but they are not ſuch barbarians as the Spaniards have repreſented them, for they have too much bravery to delight in cruelty, and too much ſpirit to ſubmit to ſlavery.

3. The large country of the Amazons, which lies in the heart of South America, is wholly under the juriſdiction of the natives; it is bounded by the equator, which ſeparates it from Terra Firma on the north,

by

by Brazil and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, by part of Brazil and Paraguay on the ſouth, and by Peru on the ſouth-weſt, lying between 50 and 75 degrees of weſt longitude, and between the equator and 15 deg. ſouth latitude; ſo that it is upwards of 1200 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 900 in breadth. This denomination was given to the country from a ſuppoſed nation of female warriors, that were reported to inhabit the banks of one of the greateſt rivers in the world, which runs from weſt to eaſt through all this extenſive territory; but the Amazons were only a nation invented by the Spaniards. This country in ſome places is ſaid to enjoy a more temperate air than could be well expected ſo near the equator: it abounds with large foreſts of ebony, iron-wood, logwood, brazil, and large cedars, with ſome fertile fields and verdant meadows. There are vaſt numbers of rivers which water this country; but moſt of them fall into the great river of Amazons, which riſes at the foot of the Andes.

The nations who inhabit the banks of theſe rivers are computed to be 150, who have ſome manufactures of cotton, and many fine plantations, but delight moſt in making war upon one another.

The Spaniards in 1540 penetrated into this country, under the command of Gonzalo Pizarro, who was obliged to return to Peru after loſing moſt of his men: beſides, he was deſerted by Orellana, who ſailed down the river of the Amazons, and proceeded to Spain, where he gave ſuch a deſcription of the riches of the country, that his Catholic Majeſty appointed him governor, and ſent him over with a conſiderable body of forces, but he loſt his life in the enterpriſe. Several attempts were afterwards made both by the Portugueſe and Spaniards, in order to diſcover this country more perfectly, but without any ſucceſs. However, it is ſaid, that the Jeſuits from

Paraguay

Paraguay have entered this country, where they have built ſeveral towns, and converted many thouſands of the inhabitants from Pagan idolatry to Popiſh ſuperſtition. They have likewiſe engraved a map of the river Amazons, which they call *Marabon*, in which are an infinite number of beautiful iſlands: they farther ſay, that it runs 1800 leagues before it falls into the Atlantic ocean, into which it diſcharges its waters by eighty-four mouths.

4. The country of Popayan, and the whole inland parts of Terra Firma abound with ſeveral Indian nations, governed by their own princes, who are fond of the retention of that liberty which they have magnanimouſly preſerved againſt the invading Spaniards.

5. The large country of Guiana, which is ſituated between the river Oroonoko and the equator, is moſtly in the hands of the natives. It is true, the French have ſome ſettlements in the iſle of Cayenne, as alſo upon the adjacent coaſt; and the Dutch have Surinam, which is ſituated in the north part of this country, between the rivers Oroonoko and Maroni, in 6 deg. 20 min. north latitude: but all the interior parts of this extenſive territory is inhabited by ſeveral numerous nations of Indians, who are reported to have ſome flouriſhing cities, a regular polity, with the ſame manners, cuſtoms, and religion, as were eſtabliſhed among the ancient Peruvians.

CHAP. XII.

Of the illicit trade carried on in the Weſt Indies, between the Britiſh, French, Dutch, and Spaniards.

THE methods hitherto purſued by his Catholic Majeſty for effectually ſecuring the commerce of his American dominions to the inhabitants of Old Spain, and of excluding all foreigners from having

having any ſhare in that trade, is the grand ſource of the contraband commerce carried on there by ſeveral other nations. The Spaniſh Americans conſider gold and ſilver as very valuable commodities, yet they are extremely willing to barter them for other commodities, which they have not, and which would be more uſeful to them than large heaps of either of theſe metals. It ſeems therefore to theſe people a great hardſhip, that either proper care is not taken to furniſh them with what they want from Spain, or that they ſhould not be allowed to ſupply themſelves ſome other way. Seeing this is the ſituation of the Spaniſh ſubjects in the new world, there needs be no wonder at their endeavouring to carry on a clandeſtine trade; as, on the other hand, one cannot think it ſtrange, that their neighbours, who live under better governments, and who have at cheap rates all that the Spaniards want, and yet ſtand in need of the ſilver and gold with which they abound, ſhould be very willing to commence ſuch an intercourſe as might ſupply their wants, and at the ſame time enrich themſelves. Sometimes the governors have winked at this, not from a principle of avarice only, that they might ſhare in the profits reſulting from ſuch a trade, but alſo from a ſenſe of the neceſſity of diſpenſing with ſuch laws ſo detrimental to the body of the people. Upon this principle it was, that before the treaty of Utrecht, and the aſſiento contract, the Engliſh at Jamaica furniſhed the Spaniards at Porto Bello with negroes, with the knowledge at leaſt, if not by the permiſſion of the governors. The government of Old Spain never indeed attempted to ſupply them with ſlaves, but permitted ſometimes the Genoeſe, ſometimes the French to carry on this trade; and when theſe did not do it effectually, the deficiency was made good by the Engliſh, though without any formal licence. The ſituation of the iſland of Jamaica, together

gether with the conveniencies of building and freighting ſloops from thence, engaged the inhabitants in this, and in other branches of traffic. The trade is carried on in this manner.

The ſhip from Jamaica having taken in negroes, and a proper ſortment of every kind of goods, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour called *the Grout*, within Monkey-key, about four miles from Porto-Bello. A perſon who underſtands the Spaniſh tongue, is directly ſent aſhore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the veſſel; the ſame news is carried likewiſe with great ſpeed to Panama; from whence the merchants ſet out diſguiſed like peaſants, with the ſilver in jars covered with meal, to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ſhip remains trading frequently for five or ſix weeks together. The Spaniards uſually come on board, leave their money; and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after having been handſomely entertained on board, and receiving proviſions ſufficient for their journey homeward. If the whole cargo is not diſpoſed of here, they bear off eaſtward to the Brew, a harbour about five miles diſtant from Carthagena, where they ſoon find a vent for the reſt. There is no trade more profitable than this; for the payments are made in ready money, and the goods ſell higher than they would at any other market. It is not on this coaſt only, but every where upon the Spaniſh main, that this trade is carried on. By degrees the gains by this commerce tempted ſo many perſons to be concerned in it, and the ſhips made uſe of were ſo well manned, and of ſuch force, that the Spaniards grew leſs timorous than formerly; by which means the commerce by the galleons was greatly affected; for, knowing where to buy goods cheaper, the merchants would not give the prices uſually demanded at

the fairs of Carthagena and Porto-Bello, and this, as before mentioned, gave rise to the guarda-coasts *.

After the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil, and after the treaty of Nimeguen had entirely removed them out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and sit down content in the west with Surinam, which we ceded to them for New York; and with three or four small and barren islands in the North sea not far from the Spanish main.

The islands which they possess are four, Curacao, St Eustatia, Aruba, and Bonaire; none of them large or fertile, but turned to the best advantage possible, by that spirit of industry, for which the Dutch are justly famous. Curacao, or Curassou, as it is generally called, is about thirty miles long, and ten in breadth. This island is the nearest to the continent, and therefore well fortified, and thoroughly peopled; and though it is naturally barren, yet produces a considerable quantity of sugar and tobacco; besides, it has very great salt works; and it is constantly supplied with provisions from the other small islands in its neighbourhood, which in truth are good for nothing else.

As this island is not above seven leagues distant from the Spanish main, a more convenient station cannot be wished for carrying on a contraband trade. It was first introduced by the sale of slaves brought thither by the Dutch from their numerous settlements on the coast of Guinea. These the Spaniards bought in a manner openly, and have transported in their own vessels 1500 at a time; but since the English from Jamaica have interfered in this trade, it is sunk very considerably: though they still supply the neighbouring provinces, and reap a great profit thereby, because no nation understands the management of this business better than they do, or can bring slaves at a

* See part 2. chap. 12.

cheaper

cheaper rate, or vend [illegible]n at a higher price. It is ſaid, that when this trade was in its moſt flouriſhing condition, it alone drew from the Spaniards a million of pieces of eight annually.

The dealers, however, at Curaſſou, and their correſpondents in Holland, were too knowing, too converſant in buſineſs, to let the declenſion of the ſlave-trade rob them of the benefit of this iſland. In order to replace what was loſt by the Engliſh interfering with them, they built vaſt magazines, and ſtored them with all ſorts of European and Eaſt-India commodities. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, ſilks, ribands, utenſils of iron, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the callicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Weſt-India, which is likewiſe their African company, bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves annually. To this mart the Spaniards come themſelves in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of their negroes, and at the beſt price, but very great quantities of all ſorts of goods already mentioned; they leave here their gold and ſilver in bars or coined, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuits bark, hides, and other valuable commodities.

The Dutch veſſels from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence or proper pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſt upon a trade which they force with a ſtrong hand. It is very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda-coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips with a number of guns, but, by a very wiſe policy, manned with a large crew of choſen ſeamen, who are deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel, and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo of a value proportioned to the owners ſtation, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage; they fight bravely, becauſe

every man fights for his own property. But, besides this, there is a constant intercourse between the Spanish continent and this island.

Those ships that trade directly from Holland to the Spanish continent, put in at Curassou, on their return, in order to complete what is wanting of their cargo, with the sugar, the tobacco, the ginger, and other produce of the island itself. The trade of this island, even in times of peace, is reputed to be worth 500,000 pounds Sterling annually; but in time of war the profit is far greater, for then it is in a manner the emporium of the West Indies, being a retreat for the ships of all nations; and the intercourse with Spain being interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarce any other market, from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company only. At present such ships as go upon that trade pay two and a half *per cent.* for their licences; the company, however, reserves to itself the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

It is strange that the British have so long neglected to plant colonies on some of the islands, which lie in such numbers off the coast of Darien; for were we to take possession of some of these islands, or of that part of the continent situated at the mouth of the gulf of Darien, where the Scots once settled; and were we to fortify it, and erect proper warehouses, in order to be filled with all kinds of European goods, and commodities of which the Spaniards stand so much in need; in that case we might carry on a most beneficial trade with the Spaniards, not only on the coasts of Terra Firma, but also on the coasts of New Spain, and might, in process of time, greatly diminish the Dutch trade on these coasts; this would in-

crease

creaſe our ſhipping, exhauſt large quantities of our manufactures, and tend to enrich the Britiſh nation.

But to return: The little iſland of St Thomas, which lies in the North ſeas, about fourteen leagues diſtant from Porto-Rico, is the ſole colony poſſeſſed by the Danes in the Weſt Indies; nor would it be worth the keeping, but as it ſerves to maintain an illicit trade with the Spaniſh iſlands in its neighbourhood. We may form ſome idea of the vaſt advantages flowing from this contraband trade, from this very particular, eſpecially if we conſider that the Hamburghers have likewiſe a factory in this little iſland, purely on the ſame ſcore. In order to maintain this correſpondence, they tranſport from the Daniſh colonies in Africa a conſiderable number of ſlaves, for the ſupply of Porto-Rico, and the Spaniſh part of Hiſpaniola. Under colour of this trade, a commerce in European goods is carried on. Of late years, other nations have made an advantage of this free port, and keep warehouſes there of all ſorts of commodities for the ſervice of ſuch cuſtomers as are willing to purchaſe them; and in time of war the privateers never want a market in this place.

The French from Hiſpaniola alſo carry on the ſame illicit trade with the Spaniſh iſlands, and ſometimes on the continent.

Nor is this illicit trade confined to the Spaniſh iſlands and the coaſts on the North ſeas, but the Portugueſe at Rio Janeiro carry on a very beneficial correſpondence with their Spaniſh neighbours. The goods with which they ſupply them are ſugars, indigo, tobacco, wines, brandy, rum, with ſome European goods, and ſometimes ſlaves. The inhabitants of this part of Brazil are ſaid to be very induſtrious, and this gives them an opportunity of gaining conſiderably by the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, and other places upon the river of Plate.

Beſides

Beſides theſe methods already mentioned, there is another common to all nations, which is as follows; Ships frequently approach the Spaniſh coaſts under pretence of wanting water, wood, proviſions, or more commonly to ſtop a leak; the firſt thing that is done in ſuch a caſe, is to give notice to the governor of their great diſtreſs, and, as a full proof thereof, to ſend a very conſiderable preſent. By this means leave is obtained to come on ſhore, to erect a warehouſe, and to unlade the ſhip; but then all this is performed under the eye of the King's officers, and the goods are regularly entered into a regiſter as they are brought into the warehouſe, which, when full, is ſhut up, and ſealed. All theſe precautions taken, the buſineſs is effectually carried on in the night-time by a back-door, and the European goods being taken out, indigo, cochineal, vinellos, and above all, bars of ſilver and pieces of eight, are very exactly packed in the ſame caſes, and placed as they ſtood before. But then, that ſuch as have bought may be able to ſell publicly, a new ſcheme takes place. A petition is preſented to the governor, ſetting forth the ſtranger's want of money to pay for proviſions, building the warehouſe, timber for repairing the ſhip, &c. in conſideration of all which leave is deſired to diſpoſe of ſome ſmall part of the cargo, in order to diſcharge theſe debts. This being obtained in the uſual manner, ſomething of each ſort of goods which had been privately ſold, is now publicly brought to market, and purchaſed by thoſe perſons reſpectively, who had larger quantities in their warehouſes before.

Having now finiſhed what we intended with regard to the Spaniſh dominions in America, we ſhall next give a brief deſcription of the Canary iſlands, which are likewiſe under the dominion of Spain. To all which will be added, by way of appendix, a ſuccinct account of the inhabitants, trade, government, revenues, naval

val and land forces, ſea-port towns, &c. in the kingdom of Old Spain.

CHAP. XIII.

Containing a brief deſcription of the Canary iſlands; their ſituation, extent, produce, trade, ports, and chief towns, &c.

THeſe famous iſlands are generally ranked among the number of the African iſlands, and are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, to the weſt of the coaſt of Bildulgerid in Africa, between the latitudes of 27 deg. 10 min. and 29 deg. 50 min. north, and between 12 deg. and 17 deg. 50 min. weſt longitude. The moſt famous and learned geographers agree, that theſe are the *inſulæ Fortunatæ* deſcribed by Ptolemy and Pliny, though the former places them too far to the ſouthward, namely, under the 16th deg. of north latitude.

Some ſay they had their preſent name from the largeſt of them, becauſe of the great number of dogs they found upon it when firſt diſcovered; though Gomera aſſerts, that at their diſcovery no ſuch animals were found upon any of them. And Dr Harris agrees with Hornius, that they derived their name not from *canibus*, according to Pliny, but from Cananeans, that is to ſay, Phœnicians, who uſed often to ſail from the continent of Africa to Cerne, and ſome think that Cerne is only a contraction of Canary.

They were diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians 500 years before the Chriſtian æra; but the Carthaginian ſtate being entirely deſtroyed by the Romans, all their diſcoveries and plantations were loſt through the neglect of navigation.

But theſe iſlands have been ſubject to the crown of Spain ever ſince the year 1417, when they were again

diſcovered

diſcovered by John Betancourt, a Frenchman in the ſervice of Caſtille, who ſubdued Fuerte Ventura and Lancerota, as others after him did the reſt from that time to 1496. In the time of Ferdinand King of Caſtille and Alphonſo V. of Portugal, each of them claimed a right to the other's dominions, and aſſumed each other's titles; upon which there enſued a bloody war between the Spaniards and the Portugueſe, and continued till both parties being ſpent, a peace was concluded in 1479, by which they reciprocally renounced their pretenſions; and it was therein ſtipulated, that the Canary iſlands ſhould entirely belong to the crown of Caſtille, and the commerce and navigation of Guinea to that of Portugal.

The air of theſe iſlands is generally good, though very hot, and the ſoil fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet; but they are moſt remarkable for excellent wine, which is tranſported from thence to moſt parts of Europe, but more particularly in time of peace to Great Britain. Here are alſo abundance of pomegranate, poplar, fig, citron, and orange trees; they yield ſugar alſo, and excellent gums. Moſt of the inhabitants are Spaniards, but there are ſtill ſome remains of the ancient natives, called *Quanches*, a very active, nimble people, who are now civilized by the Spaniards living among them. The Spaniſh fleets returning from the Weſt Indies frequently make theſe iſlands their place of rendezvous.

There are twelve of theſe iſlands, but only ſeven of note, *viz.* Lancerota, Fuerte Ventura, Gran-Canary, Teneriff, Gomera, Ferro, and Palma.

Lanzerota. 1. Lanzerota, or Lancerota, lies in 29 deg. 35 min. of north latitude, and 12 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude, being about thirteen leagues long from north to ſouth, nine in breadth, and forty in compaſs. It is parted by a ridge of mountains, which afford nothing but paſture for ſheep

and

and goats, but the valleys produce very good wheat and barley; here are alſo aſſes, kine, camels, and a good breed of horſes.

The account of the Earl of Cumberland's voyage to the Weſt Indies, ſays, that in 1596, when the Earl came with his fleet into the road, which bears E. S. E. of the iſland, he had notice of a very rich marquis here, who commanded this and the next iſland of Fuerte Ventura; upon which he ſent 500 ſoldiers aſhore, under the command of Sir John Barkley, who purſued the natives, but could not overtake them. When they came to their town, which was ten miles diſtant from the landing-place, they found that every thing was carried away except ſome wine. The governor and his guard were fled from the caſtle, though it was built of ſtrong ſquare ſtones, flanked and fortified to advantage, and defended by a great many braſs guns, and the entrance was ſo high that it was impoſſible for a perſon to get in without a very long ladder, ſo that it was judged, that twenty men might have eaſily defended it againſt 500, only by ſhutting the door and pulling in the ladder. The above account adds, that the town conſiſted of upwards of 100 houſes, roughly built, and for the moſt part of one ſtory, with flat ſloping roofs to caſt off the rain.

To the north of this place lie four ſmall iſlands, and another to the ſouth called Lobos.

2. Fuerte Ventura, or Forte Ventura, in ancient geography called *Caſperia*, lies under the 29th deg. of north latitude, and between 13 and 14 deg. of weſt longitude. It is about twenty-five leagues long from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, but its breadth is very irregular, the largeſt is about eight leagues, and its circuit ſeventy-five round the coaſt, which forms two bays. Fuerte Ventura.

The ſoil is partly mountainous and partly champaign, abounding in wheat and barley. There are

ſeveral brooks of freſh water along the coaſts, and ſoft crooked trees on their banks that yield gum, of which they make white ſalt. There are palm-trees which bear dates, olive and maſtich trees, orchell for dying, and a ſort of fig-tree which yields balm as white as milk, that is of great uſe in ſeveral medicines. They make cheeſe of the milk of their goats, of which this iſland breeds above 50,000 annually; beſides, their fleſh is very good, and the inhabitants make great profits of their ſkins and tallow, each beaſt generally weighing thirty or forty pounds. The harbours here are only fit for ſmall veſſels, not admitting ſhips of burden.

Great Canary,

3. Great Canary lies under the 28th deg. of north latitude, is about forty leagues in compaſs, and was diſcovered in 1418 by Peter de Vera a Spaniard. This iſland is remarkably fruitful, noted chiefly for its excellent wines, which bears its name, and of which Heylin ſays, they uſed to ſend 3000 tuns every year into England and the Netherlands. It abounds alſo in melons, apples, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, plantains, *&c.*

The town of Canary.

Here are three towns, namely, Gualdera, Geria, and Canary, which is the capital. It is ſeated in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, and one mile and a half diſtant from the road where the ſhips anchor. The houſes are well built, but generally one ſtory high. Though the governor of theſe iſlands, the biſhop, and the people of quality moſtly reſide at Teneriff, yet this is a biſhop's ſee, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Seville in Spain. Here are alſo the tribunal of the inquiſition, and the ſovereign council, which is the ſupreme court of judicature for all the Canary iſlands.

Teneriff.

4. Teneriff lies under the 28th and 29th degree of north latitude, and 16th and 17th of weſt longitude.

longitude. Rennefort ſays, it is eighteen leagues long, and eight in breadth; and Barbot, that it is ſixty in circumference. The chief fortreſs which defends this iſland, is compoſed of four baſtions; towards the north part of it are three other ſmall forts, and one in the ſouth, in the form of a tower. There are other two ſmall ſquare forts on the road leading to the capital city, called *Laguna*, and the whole defence of the city conſiſts in the difficulty there is of paſſing by theſe forts.

The iſland is chiefly noted for that famous mountain called *the Peak of Teneriff*. Moſt authors ſay that it is fifteen miles high, but Scaliger reckons it ſixty, Panicius ſeventy, Thevet fifty-four, and Nicholas an Engliſhman, who lived here, forty-ſeven; but then they compute the oblique aſcent, *viz.* from the bottom to the top of the mountain; for Varenius ſays, that it is but four miles and five furlongs perpendicular, and Raymondus but three miles. Sir Thomas Herbert tells us, it is ſo high that the top is ſeen in clear weather 120 miles off; and that there is plenty of wood at the bottom, ſnow in the middle, and flames on the top, where there are veins of brimſtone burning, which the people call *the devil's caldron*. He adds, that the people who aſcend it uſually ride round for the ſpace of ſeven leagues, and walk the reſt on foot.

Laguna, the capital of this iſland, ſtands on the eaſtern ſhore, at the bottom of a hill called *Garachica*. It is a large and neat town, and makes a very agreeable appearance; the houſes are ſtrong, and well built with ſtones, and covered with pantiles. Here are ſeveral elegant ſtructures, among which are two pariſh-churches, two nunneries, four convents, an hoſpital, and ſome chapels, beſides many gentlemens houſes. The ſtreets are not regular, yet they are ſpacious and handſome. Laguna.

Here are fine gardens ſet round with orange, lime, and other fruit-trees, in the middle of which are pot-herbs, ſallading, flowers, &c.

On the back of the town is a large plain three or four leagues in length and two miles in breadth, producing a thick kindly ſort of graſs.

Santa Cruz. The town of Santa Cruz lies alſo on the eaſt ſide of the iſland; it is a ſmall unwalled town fronting the ſea, guarded with two forts, beſides two others between the town and watering-place, and ſome batteries ſcattered along the coaſt to command the road. The town contains about 200 houſes, all two ſtories high. The forts are ſo weak that they could not ſecure the galleons from Admiral Blake, though they haled under the main fort. This happened in 1657, when he battered the town, and burnt ſeveral of the galleons.

Oratavia. Oratavia lies on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and being the chief ſea-port for trade, the Engliſh merchants reſide there with their conſul. Dampier ſays, that this town is bigger than Laguna the capital; that it has but one church, but many convents. The port is none of the beſt, and is very bad when the north-weſt winds blow. Theſe north-weſters give notice of their approach by a great ſea that tumbles in on the ſhore ſome time before they come, and by a black ſky in the north-weſt. Upon theſe ſigns ſhips either get up their anchors, or ſlip them, and ply off till the ſtorm is over.

The true Malmſey wine is produced in this iſland, and that near Laguna is ſaid to be the beſt in the world. The Canary grows chiefly on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and therefore is commonly ſent to Oratavia. The Verdona is a green ſtrong-bodied wine, but harſher and ſharper than Canary; this is not ſo much eſteemed in Europe, but is exported to the Weſt Indies, as it keeps beſt in hot countries. This

ſort

sort of wine is made chiefly on the east side of the island, and shipped off at Santa Cruz.

5. Gomera lies to the west of Teneriff, under the 28th deg. north latitude, and 18th deg. west longitude. According to Heylin, it is twenty-two leagues in compass, though but eight in length. He adds, that it is now as well cultivated as any of the Canaries; Barbot says, that it has a very good haven; the Spanish West-India fleet often comes into its harbour, and takes in corn, wine, sugar, fruits, and other necessaries. The country is generally high, and feeds great numbers of small cattle, and is encompassed with great deep roads. Gomera.

6. Ferro is the most westerly of all the Canaries, and lies under the 27th and 28th deg. of north latitude, and 18th deg. west longitude; said to be ten leagues long, five broad, and twenty-five in circumference. The soil is dry and barren in some parts, but tolerably fruitful in others. This island is become particularly famous, from the French navigators placing their first meridian in the centre of it, as the Dutch did theirs, from the peak of Teneriff; but at present geographers commonly reckon the first meridian from the capital city of their own country. Ferro.

7. Palmas, according to Barbot, lies to the north of Teneriff; and he says, it is seven leagues in breadth, ten in length, and twenty-six in compass. It is of an oval figure, and is very fruitful. It has a town of its own name, and a safe harbour, well frequented for wines, which some reckon the best in the Canaries. Great quantities of these wines are transported to the West Indies, and other places. Palmas.

In general, these islands are very fruitful and pleasant, producing great quantities of rich and delicious wines, as also plenty of grain, as barley, wheat, maize,

maize, *&c.* with abundance of fine fruits, as papahs, apples, pears, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, plums, cherries, *&c.* They are alſo well provided with horſes, cattle, goats, mules, ſheep, hogs, deer; with plenty of all ſorts of wild and tame fowls; all of the Canary iſlands have of theſe commodities, and proviſions, more or leſs. But Lancerota is moſt famed for horſes, the Grand-Canary, Teneriff, and Palma for wines, Teneriff eſpecially for the beſt malmſey; for which reaſon theſe three iſlands have the chief trade, and are of vaſt advantage to the poſſeſſors. But theſe iſlands have likewiſe their diſadvantages, namely, being very ſubject to dreadful earthquakes, which ſometimes do incredible miſchief. In the year 1704, a moſt terrible one happened in the iſland of Teneriff. It began the 24th of December, and in three hours time they felt twenty-nine violent ſhocks; they increaſed to ſuch a degree on the 29th, that all the houſes were ſhaken by them, as well as the moſt ſolid buildings. The fright was univerſal, and the people, with the biſhop at their head, made proceſſions and public prayers in the open fields. Theſe concuſſions continued till the month of February following. Several vulcanoes broke out at different places, from which iſſued torrents of ſulphur and other bituminous matter, which ſet ſeveral parts of the iſland on fire. Many churches and public buildings were tumbled to the ground, and nothing but ſcenes of horror and deſolation were every where to be ſeen.

Another happened in the iſland of Palma in the year 1677, which was attended with as diſmal conſequences as the former already deſcribed.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

CONTAINING

A Succinct Account of OLD SPAIN.

CHAP. I.

The ſituation, climate, ſoil, productions, &c. of Spain; with an account of the military and naval power of that kingdom.

THE kingdom of Spain is ſituated on the weſtern part of the continent of Europe; and on the eaſt and ſouth, is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic ocean; on the weſt by the ſame ſea and Portugal; and on the north by that part of the weſtern ocean called *the bay of Biſcay*, and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France. It lies in the temperate zone, between the parallels of 36 and 44 degrees of north latitude, and in length it extends from the 10th degree of weſt longitude to the 3d of eaſt longitude, that is, 13 degrees from weſt to eaſt, or about 700 miles, and 8 degrees from north to ſouth, or about 550 miles, but it is conſiderably narrower in the ſouthern part of the country. Extent and ſituation.

It is a ſort of oblong peninſula, joined to the ſouthern parts of France by the Pyrenean mountains, which run from weſt to eaſt, and from ſea to ſea; that is, from Cape Olarzo near Fontarabia in the bay of Biſcay, to Cape Creuz on the Mediterranean, being almoſt eighty leagues in length. From Cape Creuz all along the Mediterranean, to Cape St Vincent in the ſouth-weſt corner of Spain, are generally reckoned 275 leagues; on

on the weſt ſide, from Cape St Vincent to Cape Finiſterre are 125 leagues; and laſtly from Cape Finiſterre to Fontarabia are 120; which added to eighty, the length of the Pyrenees, make up the extent of the northern boundaries, *viz.* 200 leagues; ſo that the whole compaſs of Spain, including the little kingdom of Portugal, amounts to 600 leagues, or 1800 miles.

Spain was anciently divided into ſeveral diſtinct kingdoms, which, through proceſs of time, were all united into one; and it is at preſent divided into fourteen diſtricts, or provinces; namely, 1. Galicia. 2. Aſturias. 3. Biſcay. 4. Navarre. 5. Arragon. 6. Catalonia. 7. Valencia. 8. New Caſtile. 9. Old Caſtile. 10. Leon. 11. Eſtramadura. 12. Andaluſia. 13. Granada. 14. Murcia.

Climate and ſoil.

Spain being ſituated in the middle of the temperate zone, on which account, as well as for its many high and pleaſant hills, beautiful plains, and variety of rivers, we may affirm it to be not only a very delightful, but a very healthy country; being on the one hand free from the ſcorching heats to which Africa is expoſed; and from the froſts, rains, and other inclemencies of the more northern countries. The ſummers here indeed are thought by us exceſſive hot, though vaſtly ſhort of what they are found to be in the countries nearer, or within the tropics. But beſides that, theſe ſultry heats laſt but about two, or at moſt three months, and at the ſame time are greatly mitigated by the cooling breezes; whilſt all the reſt of the year is delightful and temperate. The air here is generally clear and ſerene, the great rains fall regularly in ſpring and autumn; and it is to be obſerved, that as with us moſt diſtempers are produced from colds, ſo in Spain they are generally the effects of heat, ſuch as burning fevers, pleuriſies, and the like. As a proof of

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the healthineſs of the climate here, the ancient inhabitants were not only ſtout and robuſt, but lived to a great age, whilſt they gave themſelves up to a habit of exerciſe and temperance. So that though the Spaniards have ſince dwindled from their robuſtneſs, healthineſs, and fecundity, it muſt be owing to their being ſunk into indolence, and a more luxuriant way of living, rather than to any fault or defect of the climate.

Spain is far from being a barren country, as many have repreſented it; the mountainous parts are covered with ſtately trees, and feed vaſt herds of ſheep and goats; while the plains produce excellent wheat and barley; and though there be often great ſcarcity of theſe in this kingdom, yet this does not proceed from the ſterility of the ſoil, but from the indolence of the inhabitants, and the neglect of tillage.

It produces, however, vaſt quantities of the fineſt fruits of all ſorts, ſuch as citrons, lemons, oranges, almonds, raiſins, prunes, olives, dates, figs, cheſnuts, pomegranates, *&c.* Fruits and other produce.

The ſame may be alſo ſaid of their herbs, flowers, and medicinal plants, which, though excellent in their kinds, yet grow moſt of them wild here, when in other places they could not be produced without great art and induſtry. But of all its produce the wine is the principal, which is much eſteemed all over Europe, for its richneſs and excellent flavour. Their oil, wax, and honey, are allowed to be as good as any in the world. Few countries exceed this for plenty, goodneſs, and variety of fowl, both wild and tame; of four-footed game, as deer both red and fallow, hares, rabbits, *&c.*; as for their tame ſwine, all who have had experience of it, allow, that the Spaniſh bacon exceeds even that of Weſtphalia. Here are vaſt flocks of ſheep fed upon the mountains, whoſe fleſh is ſaid to be of a more exquiſite reliſh than any that is fed in the richeſt paſtures; but they are

ſtill more valuable for their incomparable wool, which far exceeds any thing of the kind in Europe; great quantities of this wool, in time of peace, are annually imported into Britain. It is generally agreed, that the Spaniards have the beſt breed of horſes in Europe; the great price that is ſet upon them by moſt other nations, and the numbers exported out of the kingdom, is a ſufficient proof of their value. But they make uſe of mules for carrying burdens, as being better fitted by nature for drudgery, as well as for going over the moſt craggy and mountainous parts of the country, being both larger, ſtronger, and ſurer footed than horſes.

Here are mines of lead, copper, ſteel, and excellent iron, the beſt of which is dug from the mountains of Biſcay, and is ſent all over Europe. It is alſo aſſerted by ancient authors, that gold and ſilver was found in this country in ſurpriſing plenty; and Strabo tells us, that when the Carthaginians came hither, they found moſt of the Spaniſh utenſils made of it; however, the Spaniards have quite neglected thoſe mines, ever ſince they have been able to draw ſuch immenſe quantities of theſe metals out of America.

Neglect of manufactures.

Although the Spaniards are furniſhed with the moſt excellent kinds of materials for carrying on manufactures, ſuch as wool, cotton, flax, die-ſtuffs, with plenty of raw ſilk, yet they have ſhamefully neglected this neceſſary branch of buſineſs; the certain conſequence of their indolence and inactivity; which obliges them to buy the greateſt part of the goods they export to their colonies, of England, France, Holland, and Italy. There are very few of the Spaniards bred to any handicraft buſineſs, thinking it altogether derogatory to their honour to work at any trade whatſoever.

Spain is far from being a populous country, its inhabitants are computed to amount to no more than be-

tween

tween ſeven and eight millions; though at the ſame time, it is capable of maintaining three times that number, if the lands were cultivated, manufactures encouraged, and its mines properly worked. In the time of the Goths and Moors it contained between twenty-five and thirty millions of people. Several reaſons may be given for the vaſt decreaſe of its inhabitants ſince that time; the principal of which are, the expulſion of the Moors, the vaſt number of its inhabitants who have gone to Mexico, Peru, and all their other colonies, and the almoſt total want of manufactures. Another great cauſe of the thinneſs of inhabitants in this country, is the great number of monaſteries, of which there are no leſs than 9300 of religious men, and 370 nunneries, by which means no leſs than 200,000 perſons are reſtrained from propagating their ſpecies,. The manner too in which the Spaniards generally live, contributes not a little to their infecundity, particularly in the uſe of pepper and other ſpices.

Not populous; reaſons aſſigned for it.

The Spaniards are not wanting in genius, though learning has flouriſhed very little amongſt them, being always diſcouraged by the clergy. They are, in general, people of a good deal of wit, and no deſpicable judgment, which, though ſlow, is generally ſure.

The character of the Spaniards.

They poſſeſs loyalty to their princes, ſecrecy and conſtancy to each other, and patience in adverſity, to a great degree; but, on the other hand, they are haughty, proud, imperious, and cruel; add to theſe ſloth and indolence, which complete the national character.

The Spaniſh land-forces conſiſted of 96,597 men ſome time ago; but they have been of late conſiderably increaſed. The kingdom is likewiſe well defended on all ſides; on that of France it has a ſecure fence in the Pyrenean mountains;

Their land-forces.

mountains; the ſea-coaſts, beſides forty-five towns, are lined with redoubts, forts, and towers; and were an army to venture far up the country, they would be put to great inconveniencies, particularly the horſe for want of neceſſary forage.

Their navy.

The ſtrength of Spain conſiſts more in its navy, than its army. In time of peace their navy is principally employed in the protection of their American trade, clearing the coaſts of the Barbary corſairs, and other pirates, and occaſionally in tranſporting troops to America. It is alſo very well provided with ſeveral ſorts of naval ſtores. Arragon, Navarre, Catalonia, and the north coaſt produce good timber; Biſcay and other parts abound in iron. At Lierganes and Cerada, not far from St Andero, are founderies for cannon, anchors, *&c.*; and for bombs, granadoes, and all kinds of bullets, at Fugui, Azura, and Iturbiera. Powder is alſo made at ſeveral places; and Placentia in Guipuſcoa, and Valencia, are famous for all ſorts of arms; as Puerto Real, which is not far from Cadiz, is for excellent cordage. Cada in Galicia makes both cordage and canvas, being ſupplied with hemp from Granada, Murcia, and Valencia, but not in a ſufficient quantity for the demand; whence foreigners ſtill have the advantage of ſupplying them with moſt of their canvas and cordage. Tar and pitch are made in ſeveral parts of Catalonia and Arragon. The Spaniſh ſettlements in America have alſo very good ſhip-timber, pitch and tar; for which reaſon it would be more advantageous for them to build the greater part of their ſhips at the Havannah, and other proper places: beſides, the American wood is more durable than that of Europe.

The Spaniſh navy received a ſevere blow during the reign of Philip II. and from that time continued declining till after the peace of Utrecht, when Philip V. was very intent upon reſtoring it. In the year 1760, it was in as formidable a ſtate as it had been for ſeveral

ral years before, and conſiſted of the following ſhips of the line, frigates, bomb-ketches, &c.

A liſt of the Spaniſh navy as it ſtood in the year 1760.

	Guns		Guns		Guns
El Monarco	86	El Prïncipe	70	La Victoria	24
La Nuova Prin-		El Victorioſa	70	La Ermiona	24
ceſſa	84	El Terrible	70	Galgo	22
El Phœnix	80	El Atlante	70	La Dorado	22
El Rayo	80	El Diamante	64	La Perla	22
El Elephante	76	Africa	64	La Aquila	22
El Vigorozo	70	El Firme	64	La Trecha	22
El Gujon	70	El Aquiles	64	El Gazutta	22
† La Rayna	70	La Eſpana	64	El Catalan	22
† El Tygre	70	† El St Geronimo	60	El Ibicinio	20
† El Infante	70	Ferdinando	60	La Flora	20
La Princeſſa	70	† Aſia	60	El Jaſon	20
El San Philippe	70	El Septentrion	60	La Conception	20
El Oriente	70	† El America	60	El Gabilan	20
† El Aquilon	70	El Dragon	60	Gilano Xebeck	18
† El Neptuno	70	† La Europe	60	El Mercurio	18
El Brillante	70	La Caſtilla	60	El Jupiter	18
El Glorioſo	70	El Campion	60	El Voſante	18
El Guerriero	70	El Tridente	60	El Cuſador	18
El Vincedor	70	† El Conqueſtador	60	† Mars ſloop	16
† El Soverano	70	El Aſtuto	60	El Majorquin	16
El Hector	70	El Fuerte	50	Bomb-ketches	
El Gallardo	70	Adventurero	30		
El Magnanimo	70	Andaluſia	30	El Eſterope	16
El Dichoſo	70	La Eſmeraldo	30	El Bronſe	16
El Diligente	70	La Palas	26	El Pieramonte	16
El Triumphante	70	La Juno	26	El Bulcano	16
El Serio	70	La Eſtrea	26	Fire-ſhips	
El Arrogante	70	La Ventura	26		
El Superbe	70	La Venus	26	Valenciano	14
El Poderoſo	70	La Induſtria	26	El Trueno	
El Contente	70	La Liebre	26	El Belampago	
El Hercules	70	† La Veganza	24	El Rayo	

Recapitulation of the above liſt.

	Guns		Guns		Guns
one ſhip of	86	twelve of	60	ſeven of	22
one of	84	one of	50	five of	20
two of	80	three of	30	five of	18
one of	76	ſeven of	26	ſix of	16
thirty-one of	70	three of	24	one of	14
five of	64				

Thoſe marked thus † *were taken at the Havannah, Aug.* 12. 1762.

And

And three or four fire-ſhips, making in all about ninety-four ſail. But then it is to be obſerved, that above one fourth of theſe are diſarmed for want of men.

CHAP. II.

A conciſe hiſtory of the moſt remarkable revolutions that have happened in Spain, particularly the paſſing of the crown from the houſe of Auſtria into that of Bourbon, with an account of the conſtitution and government of that country.

SPain was called by the ancient Greek writers *Iberia*, either from a colony of Iberians, or *Celtes* from Caucaſus, or from the river Iberus, now the Ebro; though ſome authors rather think that the word came from *iber*, which in the ancient Celtic language ſignified *on the other ſide*, from its being ſituated on the other ſide of the Pyrenean mountains.

Spain overrun by ſeveral foreign nations.

The Celtes, a very ancient people, deſcended from Gomer, the eldeſt ſon of Japhet, who peopled the greateſt part of Europe, came thither from Gaul over the Pyrenees, and ſettled the greateſt part of Spain, and continued for ſeveral centuries in it, till their inteſtine wars againſt each other ſo weakened them, that they became an eaſy prey to other maritime and warlike nations, ſome of which ſettled in the country, while others contented themſelves with ſtripping them of their gold and ſilver, and returned home richly laden with the ſpoil. It was afterwards invaded by the Tyrians, Babylonians, and Phœnicians, the Gauls, Rhodians, Greeks, and Carthaginians, and ſince by the Romans, Goths, Vandals, Suevi, and other northern nations; and laſtly, by the Moors from Africa, who poured in ſuch numbers of

their

their ſwarthy hoſts into the kingdom, that they almoſt completed the conqueſt of the whole country in little more than eight months, though it coſt the Spaniards afterwards as many centuries in regaining it.

The firſt who began to oppoſe the mooriſh tyranny, at leaſt with any ſucceſs, was the brave Pelagius. His original is uncertain, but as early as the year 716, being grown ſomewhat powerful in Aſturias and Biſcay, he collected a ſmall body of forces, with which he repulſed and routed the infidels there, took ſeveral conſiderable places from them, and was for his bravery and ſucceſs ſaluted King by his troops, and maintained himſelf ſo well in theſe mountainous countries, that he tranſmitted the crown in an hereditary ſucceſſion to his poſterity, after a reign of near twenty years. His ſon Savila mounted the throne, but dying in the ſecond year of his reign, Alphonſo I. ſucceeded him, in right of his wife Ermeſenda, the daughter of Pelagius, and, during a reign of eighteen years, gained no leſs than thirty-four victories over the Moors.

Pelagius defeated the Moors.

His grandſon of the ſame name, ſurnamed *the Chaſte*, was equally valiant and ſucceſsful; he enlarged his dominions, and ſtyled himſelf *King of Oviedo*, which he had taken from the Moors, made it his capital city, and the place of his reſidence; but Ordonna II. after gaining ſeveral great victories over the infidels, and taking many important places from them, removed his court to Leon, calling his enlarged kingdom by the name of that capital city. In his reign the little kingdom of Navarre was founded; but going to aſſiſt that new king, who had been proclaimed by the inhabitants of the countries at the foot of the Pyrenees, he was himſelf defeated by the Moors.

About the ſame time the kingdoms of Caſtille, Arragon, and the earldom of Barcelona were founded. In

proceſs

proceſs of time all theſe acknowledged each other's titles, confederated together, and mutually aſſiſted each other, in order to extend their conqueſts in the countries inhabited by the Moors; but the kings of Leon were moſt ſucceſsful; indeed their dominions were by far the moſt extenſive, their fortreſſes ſtronger, and their forces more numerous.

Navarre, Caſtille, and Leon united.

The firſt union of theſe kingdoms was that of Navarre and Caſtille, Sancho, King of Navarre, ſeizing on the latter in right of his wife Numa, eldeſt ſiſter to Garcia, late King of Caſtille. As ſoon as he was confirmed in the poſſeſſion of this kingdom, he placed his ſon Ferdinand on the throne, and prevailed upon Bermudo King of Leon to give his only daughter to that young prince; ſo that, upon the death of Bermudo, Ferdinand, who had before vanquiſhed and dethroned his elder brother Garcia King of Navarre, united theſe three kingdoms, or rather became King of Navarre, Leon, and Caſtille. At his death he divided them between his three ſons; Sancho had Caſtille, Alphonſo Leon, and Garcia Navarre. But Sancho, who was the eldeſt, ſoon diſpoſſeſſed the other two, and being ſoon after killed at the ſiege of Zamora, was ſucceeded by his brother Alphonſo. This prince was very ſucceſsful againſt the Moors, took the city of Toledo from them, and in the year 1108 made it the place of his reſidence.

At his death, as he left no ſon, Alphonſo of Arragon, who had married Uracca his ſiſter and heireſs, poſſeſſed his kingdoms, uniting them to his own; but being obliged to divorce her for incontinence, his right to theſe crowns paſſed to Alphonſo her ſon by Raymond Earl of Burgundy, her former huſband, and he was accordingly crowned at Toledo with the title of Emperor. In his reign Alonzo, ſon to Henry of Burgundy, who had been made Earl of Portugal, took upon

upon himſelf the royal title and dignity, and tranſmitted it to his poſterity.

By the divorce above mentioned of the heireſs of Leon and Caſtille from the King of Arragon, theſe crowns were again diſunited. The two former continued in the poſterity of Alphonſo, the ſon of Uracca, and from him paſſed through a ſucceſſion of about fourteen monarchs, of whom ſome were no better than uſurpers, to King John, who was ſo diſagreeable to his ſubjects, that he was obliged to declare his ſiſter Iſabella his heireſs, though he had a daughter of his own. John died in the year 1474, after a troubleſome reign of twenty years, when Ferdinand King of Arragon, who had married the Princeſs Iſabella, took poſſeſſion of theſe two kingdoms, though they of right belonged to Johanna, the daughter of King John. However, Ferdinand was not ſcrupulous with regard to her title, but reigned ſocially with his wife Iſabella over the three kingdoms of Arragon, Caſtille, and Leon, and they have ever ſince continued united in their deſcendents.

Soon after they had ſecured their new acquiſitions, they turned their arms againſt the Moors, and took from them the kingdom of Granada, the only country the infidels had then left in Spain. In their reign the famous Columbus diſcovered the Weſt Indies, the greater part of which they conquered by ſuch bloody and treacherous means as muſt brand with eternal infamy the Spaniſh nation, though it has made ſo vaſt an addition to that monarchy. They next added the kingdom of Navarre to their ill-acquired dominions, and afterwards conquered the iſland of Naples in Italy.

The Weſt Indies diſcovered.

Thus all the petty kingdoms of Spain were at laſt united into one monarchy, beſides the vaſt acceſſion of dominions in the new world.

They reigned thirty years, and Iſabella dying in

the year 1504, the kingdom devolved to Philip, ſon to the Emperor Maximilian, Archduke of Auſtria, and Duke of Burgundy, who had married Johanna, the daughter of Iſabella, and in whoſe right he ſucceeded to the kingdom of Caſtille; but dying in 1506, after a reign of two years, and his Queen Johanna becoming diſtracted, her father Ferdinand took again the reins of government, and held them till the year 1516, when he died; and the reign of the Queen, which laſted thirteen years, terminated by reaſon of her incapacity.

Charles the Great ſucceeds Ferdinand and Iſabella.

Charles her ſon, by Philip above mentioned, aſcended the throne in 1517, and the Emperor Maximilian dying about two years after, he alſo aſcended the Imperial throne, and thereby became one of the greateſt princes that ever ſwayed an European ſceptre, and was accordingly called *Charlemagne*, or *Charles the Great*; for being grandſon to Maximilian, who married the heireſs of Charles the Warlike, Duke of Burgundy, he poſſeſſed the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, and afterwards in his mother's right the kingdom of Spain, Naples, the Weſt Indies, and now by election Emperor of Germany, with the addition of the duchy of Milan.

He reigned forty years, and then of his own free-will reſigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and the dominions of Spain to his ſon Philip. By him the crown of Spain acquired an addition of all the Low Countries, together with the duchies of Burgundy and Milan. He lived two years after his reſignation a recluſe in the monaſtery of St Juſta, of the order of St Jerom, near the city of Placentia, and died in the year 1558.

Philip II.

Philip II. his ſon ſucceeded him in Spain, and other dominions; but the Dutch, ſupported by France and England, revolted, and formed

formed themſelves into that republican government, which has ſubſiſted to the preſent time, notwithſtanding all the efforts of Spain to reduce them. During his reign the Moroſcos, or relics of the ſubdued Moors in Spain, alſo revolted, but were totally defeated and ſubdued. Henry the cardinal, King of Portugal, dying without iſſue, in the year 1580, Philip took poſſeſſion of that kingdom, as ſon of Eliſabeth the daughter of Emanuel, and by that means united all the kingdoms of Spain under one head. In the year 1588, he ſent the famous armada with a view to conquer England; but moſt of the ſhips which compoſed that powerful armament, were either deſtroyed by the Engliſh fleet, or periſhed by ſtorms. From this time the naval power of Spain continued to decline, till the acceſſion of Philip V. who was very intent upon reſtoring their naval force. Philip II. built the noble palace of Eſcurial, which was a work of thirty years, and coſt an immenſe ſum of money. He diſturbed the peace of Europe, and was guilty of many oppreſſions and cruelties to his ſubjects, eſpecially to thoſe in the kingdom of Arragon, for daring to aſſert their rights and liberties; and by his graſping ſo eagerly at univerſal monarchy, he ruined the affairs of the nation, and beggared his ſubjects. He died in the year 1598, after a long, but troubleſome and inglorious reign of forty-two years.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Philip III. the moſt remarkable action of whoſe reign was the baniſhing the Moroſcos, or offſpring of the Moors, which were ſtill in ſuch multitudes, that the number of the baniſhed amounted to near 900,000 ſouls; and yet this prodigious number conſiſted only of thoſe who were known, or profeſſed themſelves infidels; for it has ſince appeared, that multitudes of them remained who profeſſed indeed the Chriſtian religion, and externally conformed in Philip III.

every point to the ſenſeleſs ceremonies and ſuperſtitious nonſenſe of the Roman church, yet at heart were really deluded Mahometans, or obſtinate Jews. Philip III. reigned twenty-two years, and died in 1621.

Philip IV. his ſon and ſucceſſor, was a prince ſo wholly addicted to pleaſure, though engaged in bloody wars during his whole reign, that it gave his enemies great advantage over him. The Dutch in particular, who revolted under his grandfather, gained ſo many victories, that he was obliged to declare them a free ſtate. He likewiſe engaged in a bloody war with France, which did not fail to raiſe inteſtine diviſions in his own kingdom. The Catalans took up arms in defence of their ancient liberties, but were at laſt defeated, and forced to ſubmit; but Portugal, which revolted at the ſame time, (whoſe inhabitants proclaimed the Duke of Braganza their King), was ſo powerfully ſupported by the Engliſh and French, that it became again an independent monarchy, and has continued the ſame ever ſince. Philip IV. reigned forty-four years, and died in 1665.

Philip IV.

Charles II. ſon to Philip IV. was ſo weak a prince, both in body and mind, that the Spaniſh affairs fell ſtill into greater decay. During his minority, he was obliged to conclude a peace with Portugal. His wars with France, which continued the greateſt part of his reign, were attended with bad ſucceſs, and many of his provinces, which had long groaned under the tyranny of his predeceſſors, particularly the brave Catalans, were waiting for a fair opportunity to recover their ancient liberties. Under all theſe troubles and perplexities he ſpun out a reign of twenty-five years; and being the laſt of the male line, made his will, by which he left the crown of Spain to Philip Duke of Anjou, ſecond

Charles II.

ſon

ſon of the Dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. Charles died in 1700, and moſt bloody wars enſued on account of the ſucceſſion to that crown.

Accordingly the Duke of Anjou, afterwards Philip V. was proclaimed King of Spain, Philip V. and as ſuch was not only received there, but acknowledged by other ſtates of Europe, and the King of France prepared to maintain his grandſon in the poſſeſſion thereof, which he foreſaw would be diſputed by the houſe of Auſtria and its allies; becauſe Lewis XIV. had, on his marriage with the Infanta of Spain, renounced, in the moſt ſolemn manner, all right and title to the ſucceſſion of Spain, by virtue of the marriage, both for himſelf and his heirs. By this renunciation, Leopold, then Emperor of Germany, was conſidered as next heir, and accordingly laid claim to the Spaniſh crown, transferring his right to his ſecond ſon Charles, Archduke of Auſtria, his eldeſt ſon Joſeph having been ſome time before created King of the Romans, and conſequently his ſucceſſor to the empire. Charles was accordingly acknowledged King of Spain by the Emperor, the Britiſh, Dutch, the Spaniſh eſtates in Italy, and the brave Catalans in Spain. Our fleets tranſported him thither, and our troops, as well as thoſe of his other allies, aſſiſted him, in order to take the Spaniſh crown from the houſe of Bourbon. War was immediately proclaimed againſt France and Spain, and the allied army, under the conduct of the two famous generals Marlborough and Eugene, reduced France to the loweſt ebb; at the ſame time Charles's troops and ours were ſucceſsful in Spain, and he in a fair way of becoming maſter of the whole country; but, like a weak prince, he undertook pilgrimages, and other ſuperſtitious fooleries, inſtead of ſeconding the ardour of his allies, and marching directly with them

to

to Madrid. Charles had not long miſſed the favourable opportunity of regaining the kingdom from his rival, before the ſituation of affairs took another turn, by the death of his father and his brother Joſeph, who died in 1711, and left King Charles III. ſole heir-male of the houſe of Auſtria; and by his election to the Imperial throne, the balance of power began to be in as much danger from the Spaniſh crown being added to the empire, as it was before by paſſing into the houſe of Bourbon. Accordingly France, though reduced to the loweſt degree, found means of obtaining a far more advantageous peace than what it deſerved, or had reaſon to hope for. This was the peace of Utrecht, which was concluded in 1713, by which Philip V. was left in the full and quiet poſſeſſion of the Spaniſh crown, and the Catalans, thoſe brave deſcendents of the ancient and warlike Celtes, were left to the mercy of the Spaniards, by whom they were ſtripped of the poor remains of their ancient privileges, and reduced to the loweſt ſtate of ſlavery, under which they have ever ſince groaned.

The treaty of Utrecht.

By this treaty King Philip yielded to Great Britain the town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, and the iſland of Minorca.

Though nothing could be more adverſe, both by principle and education, to our Proteſtant ſucceſſion than Philip V. of Spain was, yet it is wonderful to reflect what prodigious things the intereſt of the two nations did for removing the antipathies of the two courts. The adminiſtration of Sir Robert Walpole was, it is true, but ill fitted for vigorous meaſures, and during it Spain was guilty of the moſt ſhocking inſults upon our nation and government; but ſtill we were ſilently reaping vaſt advantages in commerce, and what the court loſt in honour, the people gained in profit. The parliament, as guarantees of the people's

people's honour, for a long time wanted to interpoſe; but Sir Robert's pacific ſchemes did not admit ſuch an interpoſition.

After the ambition of the Queen-mother of Spain had formed one of the moſt romantic ſchemes that could have well been conceived, *viz.* the introducing his preſent Catholic Majeſty into Italy, the naval power of Great Britain rendered that ſcheme practicable, and carried it into execution; yet ſo great was the antipathy between the two courts, that Don Carlos, his preſent Catholic Majeſty, was not ſuffered to truſt his perſon on board the very fleet that was to carry him to take poſſeſſion of a kingdom. Rather than do that he hazarded his perſon, by going by land through a great part of France, and embarking at Antibes on board the Spaniſh galleys, proceeded to Leghorn.

Before that time the Imperial court took poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia; but, by the good offices of his late Majeſty, the Emperor relinquiſhed that poſſeſſion, and his preſent Catholic Majeſty owed to us his obtaining peaceable poſſeſſion of theſe two duchies, which paved the way for his mounting the throne of Naples, as he ſoon after did.

While we were thus unmeaſurably aggrandizing the Spaniſh branch of the houſe of Bourbon, the court of Madrid entertained in her ſervice all the adherents of the pretender, and allowed him a penſion, by which he ſaved money enough for beginning and carrying on the rebellion of the year 1745. The young pretender, who headed that rebellion, was the diſtinguiſhed favourite of the King of Naples; ſo that the handle of the hatchet now lifted up againſt us, may be ſaid to have been cut out of our own wood. But even theſe partialities were far from inducing us to do any thing that was ſevere againſt his preſent Catholic Majeſty. In the year 1742, when our naval

power

power could have deſtroyed his capital of Naples, and when, by ſending his troops to join with our enemies, we might have been juſtified in coming to extremities, all that our court did, though it had by that time altered its pacific complexion, was to order Admiral Matthews to expoſtulate with his Neapolitan Majeſty, and to give him a reaſonable time for returning an anſwer. A ſmall ſquadron was accordingly ſent to the bay of Naples, which ſo intimidated the Neapolitan monarch, that he promiſed to recall his troops, ſo no further violence was offered him.

Upon the death of Philip V. (which happened in June 1746, in the forty-ſixth year of his reign), Ferdinand VI. ſucceeded. To do juſtice to that prince, Great Britain had leſs to complain of from him than ſhe has had from any Catholic King theſe 200 years; and yet it was under him the infamous reſtitution of the Antigallican's prize took place, at the very time when his late Majeſty was commending his good faith from the throne. He did not, it is true, as his ſucceſſor has done, make an inſidious treaty with our enemies, nor did he inſolently make unheard of demands: But to what was his moderation owing? not to that of his court or miniſtry, but to his own weak brains. Upon his demiſe, which happened the 10th of Auguſt 1759, he was ſucceeded by Don Carlos, late King of Naples and Sicily; and Great Britain thought ſhe had reaſon to congratulate herſelf upon the ſucceſſion of a prince, who lay under ſo many perſonal obligations to her, as his preſent Catholic Majeſty did. Though ſhe might very juſtly, according to the ſpirit of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, have oppoſed the family-ſettlement he made of his dominions, yet we did not oppoſe, nor, as far as the public has been informed, did any of our allies oppoſe it, even with a ſingle memorial.

Ferdinand VI.

Thus

Thus his Catholic Majeſty has requited all the obligations the Britiſh nation have heaped upon him, by taking part with our greateſt enemy, and by moſt inſolently interfering in their behalf, whereby the greateſt indignity was offered to the Britiſh crown.

The conſtitution of Spain is at preſent an abſolute hereditary monarchy, where the females ſucceed in default of the male line, but the King ſeems to be inveſted with the power to diſpoſe of the crown to any particular branch of the royal family; of which we had an inſtance in Charles II. beſtowing his dominions upon Philip V. grandſon to Lewis XIV. Conſtitution.

But though the King be an abſolute deſpotic monarch, he ſeldom tranſacts any matter of importance without the advice of the ſeveral councils eſtabliſhed for the management of their reſpective branches in their department. Of theſe,

1. The cabinet-council conſiſts of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, and a few more appointed by the King, who finally determine matters relating to the government.

2. The privy council, which conſiſts of a great body, who prepare matters for the inſpection of the cabinet.

3. The council of war.

4. The council of Caſtille, which is the higheſt court of judicature in the kingdom, for cauſes either civil or criminal, and receives appeals from all the inferior courts of the nation.

5. The ſeven courts of royal audience, *viz.* of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe, firſt of all, take cogniſance of every cauſe within five leagues of their reſpective capitals, and alſo (by way of appeal) of all cauſes removed from inferior courts within their reſpective juriſdictions.

There is likewiſe a ſupreme court for the management of all affairs relative to the Indies, conſiſting chiefly of governors and other officers, who formerly held ſome great poſt in America.

Beſides theſe, there are councils or boards appointed for the management of the royal revenue, and ſeveral other branches of buſineſs relative to the crown.

The kings of Spain uſed formerly to enumerate, in a pompous manner, all the kingdoms and provinces of which they were poſſeſſed; but they are at preſent contented with the title of *His Catholic Majeſty*, in which all the reſt are now comprehended.

On the inauguration of a new monarch, he is proclaimed, and receives homage from the ſtates, but the unction and coronation have been diſuſed for ſome centuries paſt.

The eldeſt ſon is ſtyled *Prince of the Aſturias*, which was firſt conferred, in 1388, upon Prince Henry, ſon to King John I. who had married Katharine, the daughter of John Duke of Lancaſter, in imitation of the Engliſh monarchs, who gave the title of *Prince of Wales* to their eldeſt ſons. The younger ſons are ſtyled *Infants*, and the daughters *Infantas*.

CHAP. III.

An account of the principal ſea-port towns in Spain.

THE ports of Spain are many, but ſome of them of little importance to the trade of the kingdom; the principal of which are the following; and beginning with Barcelona, which lies in the north-eaſt corner of the kingdom, we ſhall proceed in our deſcription of them as they lie along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and Atlantic ocean, till we come to Fontarabia, in the ſouth corner of the bay of Biſcay.

1. Barcelona is the capital of the province of Catalonia,

talonia, and inferior to few in Europe that are not courts of princes. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the Mediterranean coaſt, a little below the gulf of Lions, and opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, which, together with its caſtle, the beauty of its churches, and other ſumptuous buildings, affords a moſt delightful proſpect to ſhips ſailing by it; eſpecially as it ſtands between two conſiderable rivers, which fall into the ſea on each ſide of it. Before it is a ſafe road; and the port, though rather too ſmall, has rendered it a place of conſiderable trade. It ſtands at the foot of the mount Monjuyque, on which is a ſtrong caſtle, commanding the whole city. The walls have ramparts in ſome places, and in others only ſtone-work defended by baſtions. The ſtreets are wide, the churches beautiful and rich, and the gardens elegant and delightful. Here is an univerſity, an academy of arts and ſciences, founded in the year 1752, and a court of inquiſition. In the year 1697, it was taken by the French, but reſtored again at the peace of Ryſwick. K. Charles III. made himſelf maſter of it in 1705, but it ſurrendered to Philip V. after a very obſtinate defence. This city ſtands 300 miles eaſt of Madrid, (which is the capital of Spain, and lies in the centre of the kingdom), 140 eaſt of Saragoſſa, and 180 north-eaſt of Valencia.

Barcelona long. 2 eaſt, lat. 41. 20.

2. Tarragona in the province of Catalonia, is an old fortified town, ſituated on an eminence near the ſea, about fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Barcelona, at the mouth of the little river Francoli. It was formerly much larger, more opulent, and more populous than at preſent. The univerſity here was founded in the year 1532; it has a good trade, and an harbour; but the latter, on account of its many rocks, is impracticable for ſhips of burden. The adjacent country produces corn, oil, wine, and flax: both within and

Tarragona eaſt long. 1. 15. north lat. 41. 6.

without the city are to be ſeen many antiquities. In 1705, it ſubmitted to the Britiſh and Dutch forces, but was reſtored at the peace of Utrecht to King Philip.

3. Tortoſa is an ancient, fortified, and large city of the province of Catalonia, ſituated on the river Ebro, over which it has a bridge of boats. The avenue to it is defended by two baſtions, and other outworks. It lies partly on a level ground, and partly on a hill, being divided into the old and new town, of which the former is the largeſt. The ancient ſtrong caſtle, with which, beſides other fortifications, it is defended, ſtands on an eminence betwixt it and the old town, being built in form of a citadel. Its univerſity is conſiderable, and the adjacent country abounds in grain and delicious fruits. It produces alſo ſilk and oil; near the city are ſome mines, and quarries of ſtone; and the inhabitants make a pretty kind of earthen ware. The Ebro being navigable, is a great conveniency to the trade of the place. It is ninety miles ſouth-weſt of Barcelona, and 45 from Tarragona.

Tortoſa eaſt long. 14 min. north lat. 45.

4. Valencia, which is the capital of the province of the ſame name, lies on the river Guadalaviar, in a very pleaſant and fertile country, being a large and beautiful city, defended with ſome fortifications. It is very populous, being inhabited both by merchants and people of rank; the former of whom carry on a very conſiderable trade here. The form of this city is almoſt circular, ſurrounded with an ancient ſtout wall, adorned with many ſtately towers, and thirteen gates, it being 6440 paces in circumference. Its ſea-port which ſtands on the Mediterranean, near two miles from the city, furniſhes it with every neceſſary. It is 180 miles ſouth-eaſt of Madrid.

Valencia eaſt long. 14 min. lat. 39. 2.

5. Alicant is a famous city and ſea-port on the Mediterranean,

diterranean, in the province of Valencia. It is surrounded with ſtrong walls, and defended by a caſtle built on a rock. The harbour is commodious, and the town is famous for its red and white wine, particularly the red. Meal, and every other neceſſary of life, is here very good. It is divided into two pariſhes, in which are about 1700 families; it has ſix monaſteries, two nunneries, two hoſpitals, and ſeveral chapels. In the year 1706 it was taken by the Engliſh, but in two years after, was recovered by the Spaniards. Its chief exports are wine, ſoap, and anniſeed. Along the coaſt are ſeveral towers, where a watch is conſtantly kept againſt the corſairs. It is ſixty miles diſtant ſouth from Valencia, and 210 from Madrid.

Alicant weſt long. 30 min. lat. 38. 35.

6. Carthagena is a city in the province of Murcia, built on the ſide of a hill on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, and is a commodious, as well as one of the moſt noted ſea-ports in Spain, but is greatly declined from its former grandeur. The harbour is ſheltered from ſtorms by a ſmall iſland called *Scumbraria*; which was ſo named from the great abundance of mackerel found in the bay. Diamonds, rubies, amethyſts, and other gems are found here, and the inhabitants export great quantities of wool to Italy. Both the city and harbour are pretty well fortified; and the city contains about 1200 inhabitants.

Carthagena weſt long. 50 min. lat. 37. 40.

7. Almacaron is a large ſea-port in the province of Murcia, about eighteen miles ſouth-weſt of Carthagena. It has ſome mines of alum, which bring in a large revenue to the Duke de Eſcalona, and the Marquis de Vela.

Almacaron weſt long. 1. 15. lat. 37. 40.

7. Almeria is a city in the province of Granada, lying on a bay, with a little river running into it.

The

The country about it is very plentiful, particularly in fruits and oil. It has a very ſafe and pleaſant harbour, and not far from hence the land projects ſouth-eaſtward into the ſea, and forms a cape, by the ancients called *Charideme*, by the moderns *Cabo de Gates*. This city was formerly in a much more flouriſhing condition than it is at preſent, having now no more than 600 houſes, and theſe not extraordinary. Its walls, which are waſhed by the ſea, are reckoned about three miles in circumference; and it ſtands about 210 miles ſouth-eaſt of Madrid, ſixty-four ſouth-eaſt from Granada, and ſeventy-five weſt from Murcia.

Almeria weſt long. 1. 50. lat. 36. 57.

9. Malaga is an ancient fortified ſea-port in the province of Granada at the foot of a ſteep mountain, well built, populous, and has an harbour ſuitable to its extenſive commerce. The chief exports of this place are wool, olives, oil, raiſins, ſack, and other wines; the duties of which yield the revenues of Spain 800,000 ducats annually. It is defended by two caſtles, *viz.* Gillalfarro, which is ſeated upon a hill, and Alcazzava, lying below it. The Phœnicians were the firſt who built a town in thoſe parts, calling it *Malacha* or *Malaca*, from their great ſale of fiſh here. Not far from this town, in the year 1704, an obſtinate engagement was fought between the Engliſh and Spaniſh fleets, but to the diſadvantage of the latter. Malaga is diſtant 260 miles ſouth of Madrid, and ſixty-ſix north-eaſt of Gibraltar.

Malaga weſt long. 4. 4. lat. 36. 46.

10. Cadiz is a noted trading city in the province of Andaluſia, ſtanding on an iſland on the north-weſt end of a long miſhapen neck of land, ſtretching from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; the weſtern part of which is called *Cadiz*, but on the ſouth-eaſt the iſland of Leon. It is joined alſo to the continent (from which it is divided by a narrow

Cadiz weſt long. 6. 40. lat. 36. 30.

narrow canal, or arm of the ſea) by means of the bridge Suazo, both ends of which are defended with redoubts, and ſome other raiſed works of earth. The iſland on which Cadiz ſtands, and the oppoſite ſhore, form a bay of about twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth; but near the middle of the bay are two points of land, one on the continent, and the other on the iſland, not above 500 fathoms aſunder; on which are the two forts Puntal and Matagorda, commanding the paſſage; within theſe is a large and very good harbour; but no enemy can enter it without taking theſe forts called by the Spaniards *Los Puntales*. During the time of ebb, a good part of the harbour is dry.

The city of Cadiz is of pretty large circumference. The greater part of the ſtreets are narrow, crooked, ill paved, and dirty; but a few of them are broad, ſtraight, and well paved. The houſes are moſtly between three and four ſtories high, being built with a quadrangular area, and many are really elegant and ſtately. Houſe-rents and proviſions, in general, are dear here, and good water is very ſcarce. It is ſaid to contain thirteen convents, among which the college of the Jeſuits is the fineſt in all Andaluſia; but has only one pariſh-church, which is the cathedral, though the ſettled inhabitants here are computed at 40,000. Here is the *audientia real de la contraction a las Indias*, or the company trading to the Indies; which was removed hither in 1717, from Seville. It was indeed reſtored to it again in 1725, but was brought back to Cadiz the following year. Both before and after the arrival of the Spaniſh American flota, this city is crouded with ſtrangers, to the number it is ſaid of 50,000, who reſort hither on account of trade, which cauſes an extraordinary circulation of money.

Cadiz is the centre of all the American trade, the flota and galleons taking in their loading here, and

return

return hither with the rich products of Mexico and Peru.

To this place the French, Engliſh, Dutch, and Italian merchants ſend their goods, which are ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms to America; beſides theſe nations, all others who carry on a traffic by ſea, have alſo their agents, correſpondents, and factors here; and the conſuls of theſe nations make a conſiderable figure. In this place none thrive better than the merchants who ſeldom riſk their own ſubſtance, but enrich themſelves at the charge of thoſe who remit them their effects, whence, whatever happens, they are no loſers. The duty on foreign merchandiſe ſent hither, would yield a vaſt revenue, and conſequently the profits of the merchants and their agents would ſink, without many fraudulent practices for eluding the duties.

Cadiz is fortified with walls, and irregular baſtions, according as the land admitted them: on the ſouth ſide there is no approaching it, on account of the high and ſteep ſhore; on the north ſide too, the acceſs is dangerous, by reaſon of many ſand-banks and rocks which lie under water; the ſouth-weſt ſide indeed admits of landing, but is defended by fort St Catilina: however, all the forts, together with the city itſelf, were taken by the Earl of Eſſex in the year 1596, who, after plundering it of immenſe treaſures, burnt the place, and deſtroyed the galleons in the harbour. This city is 270 miles ſouth-weſt of Madrid, ſixty ſouth of Seville, and forty north-weſt of Gibraltar.

11. St Mary, the capital of an earldom belonging to the Duke of Medina Celi, enjoys a flouriſhing trade, and lies at the mouth of the river Guadalite, directly oppoſite to Cadiz, which exceeds that city in bigneſs; the ſtreets alſo are broader and better paved, and the houſes handſomer;

St Mary.

ſomer; but yet it contains ſcarce 8000 inhabitants. It is only walled round, and the little caſtle, which it has inſtead of a citadel, is but of ſmall force. Here are great numbers of French, Engliſh, Dutch, Genoeſe, and other merchants; in it are alſo made vaſt quantities of ſalt. Its harbour is the rendezvous of ſome of the Spaniſh galleys. In the year 1702, the Britiſh and Dutch made themſelves maſters of it, without any oppoſition.

12. St Lucar, a well-built town, having a good harbour, at the mouth of the river Guadalquivir, forty-five miles below Seville. St Lucar. It ſtands on a hill. The harbour is difficult of acceſs, on account of a rock under water, but is defended by two batteries, and in the road a whole fleet may ride with ſafety. The town declines daily, and its principal trade is in ſalt.

13. Seville is a large and very ancient city, built in an extenſive and very fertile plain, on the river Guadalquivir, which is navigable for large ſhips, near forty miles from its mouth, and over which it has a ſpacious bridge of ſeventeen boats, which joins the city to a large ſuburb called *Triano*. The city is ſtrong, and ſpacious, adorned with fifteen gates, and 166 ſtately towers. It is divided into twenty-nine pariſhes, in which are forty-four monaſteries, thirty nunneries, twenty-four hoſpitals, 14,000 houſes, and about 300,000 inhabitants. Seville.

The cathedral of this city is very remarkable, being partly in the Gothic and partly in the Moroſco taſte, by which it acquires ſomething of a majeſtic greatneſs, beyond any thing of the kind in Spain. It has nine gates, eighty windows, and eighty-two altars, on which 500 maſſes are ſaid every day. It is 407 feet in length, 271 in breadth, and 128 in height. The tower of this church is 350 feet high,

in which are twenty-four bells, and on the top a famous ſtatue of a woman, called *Giralda*, which, turning with the wind, anſwers the intention of a weather-cock. The inſide of this ſtructure is finely decorated with ſtatues, pictures, altars, and other ornaments, which would be tedious to deſcribe.

All along the river are many uſeful and commodious quays, where ſhips of conſiderable burden may load and unload with ſafety. Near the water-ſide is a ſtately tower, which they call the *golden tower*, commanding the whole river, city, and ſuburbs. St Lucar, laſt deſcribed, is the port-town of Seville. This city has, at leaſt in time of peace, a very extenſive trade, particularly to the Weſt Indies; and the circumjacent country is remarkably fruitful in wine, fruits, *&c.*

14. Agamonte, a town ſituated at the mouth of the Guadiana, in the province of Andaluſia, having a commodious harbour; the neighbouring country produces an excellent kind of wine, but not ſtrong. The town gives the title of Marquis to the families of Zuriga and Guzman. It is 100 miles weſt of Seville, and 85 north-weſt of Cadiz.

Agamonte, weſt long. 8. 5. lat. 37.

The Spaniards have few ports on the weſt ſide from Cape St Vincent to Cape Finiſterre, that part belonging moſtly to his Portugueſe Majeſty.

15. The firſt Spaniſh port we meet with on the weſt ſide is Vigo, a town of Galicia, ſeventy miles ſouth-eaſt of Cape Finiſterre, ſeated on a ſmall bay, having a fort on an eminence, but not capable of any long reſiſtance. It has alſo an old caſtle, and ſtands in a very fruitful country. In the year 1702 the Engliſh and Dutch fleets forced their paſſage in, and made themſelves maſters of the Spaniſh plate-fleet, when juſt returned from America. In the year 1719, the Britiſh again

Vigo, weſt long. 9. 18. lat. 42. 15.

got

got poſſeſſion of this place, but relinquiſhed it after raiſing contributions.

16. Noya, a ſmall town in the province of Galicia, on a bay into which iſſues the river Tambra; it ſtands in a fruitful plain, and is chiefly noted for its ſhip-building. It is fifteen miles weſt of the great town of Compoſtella, and not far from Cape Finiſterre, in a ſouth-eaſt direction. Noya, weſt long. 9. 47. lat. 42. 50.

17. Corunna, or as it is generally called the *Groine*, is an ancient ſea-port near Ferrol, in the bay of Biſcay. It is by its ſituation well defended againſt the winds, and by two ſtrong caſtles againſt any hoſtile attempt. The city is walled, contains four pariſhes, and about 1500 families; has four churches, one of them collegiate, three monaſteries, one nunnery, three hoſpitals, and ten chapels. It has a ſpacious harbour, and is the ſeat of the *audientia real* of Galicia. In time of peace it is a place of conſiderable trade, and conſequently wealthy. This town is commonly known in Britain by the name of the *Groine*, and is the place at which all our diſpatches for Spain arrive. It is thirty miles north of Compoſtella. Corunna, or the Groine, weſt long 9. lat. 43. 10.

18. Betanzos, a town and ſea-port in the province of Galicia, is ſeated on a plain in a bay of the ſea, between the rivers Mandes and Caſcas, thirty-five miles north-eaſt of Compoſtella, and twenty ſouth of Ferrol. It is ſurrounded by a wall, has five gates, two pariſhes, and about 1000 families. Betanzos, weſt long. 8. 50. lat. 43. 15.

19. Ferrol is ſituated at the head of an excellent harbour on the bay of Biſcay, and in the kingdom of Galicia, twenty-four miles north-eaſt of the Groine, and fifty-four north of Compoſtella. This is one of the ſtations for the royal navy of Spain, and the port where they Ferrol, weſt long. 8. 40. lat. 43. 30.

frequently ſecured themſelves in the laſt war, and where their privateers carried in many Britiſh prizes; the entrance of the harbour being very well fortified, but far from being impregnable.

Ribadeo.

20. Ribadeo is a ſmall town in the province of Galicia, ſeated on a rock at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which makes it a good and ſecure harbour.

St Andero, weſt long. 4. 30. lat. 43. 20.

21, St Andero, in the province of Old Caſtille, on the bay of Biſcay, is a ſmall, ancient, and fortified ſea-port at the foot of a hill, ſeated in a pleaſant country, which abounds with fine fruits and wine, having a large, ſecure, and well-fortified harbour, but has at its entrance a dangerous rock, called *Pennade Mogrcn.* Its ſuburbs are almoſt wholly inhabited by fiſhermen, whoſe trade here turns to a very good account, the neighbouring ſeas abounding with fiſh. The Spaniards build and lay up ſome men of war here. It is ſixty miles weſt of Bilboa, and eighty north of Burgos.

Bilboa, weſt lon. 3. north lat. 43. 20.

22. Bilboa, though no city, is now the capital of Biſcay, it being a place of great trade, by reaſon of its good port, ſmall veſſels coming up to the mole, and others of greater bulk lying farther out. The town lies in a plain environed with high mountains; it enjoys a good air, ſtands in a fruitful country, is well built, and is both large and populous, containing no leſs than 1200 houſes. Here proviſions are cheap and plenty, and the inhabitants export great quantities of wool, excellent iron, moſtly in bars, and alſo ſwords, fire-arms, and other military neceſſaries. The town ſtands at ſome diſtance from the ſea, on the river Nervius, now Ibaicabal, into which the tide flows, and forms a ſecure harbour. It is 200 miles north-eaſt from Madrid, and ſixty weſt of St Sebaſtian.

23. San

23. San Sebaſtian, a noted port in the bay of Biſcay, of conſiderable bigneſs, having a ſecure harbour at the mouth of the little river Gurumea. The town is ſeated at the foot of a mountain, which ſerves as a defence againſt the tempeſtuous ſea. The harbour lies between two redoubts, between which only one ſhip can paſs at a time. Near the entrance is alſo a fort with a garriſon in it to prevent any ſurpriſe. The town is ſurrounded with walls, beſides which it is defended with baſtions and half-moons, and on the mountain under which it lies is a citadel. The ſtreets are long, ſtraight, and clean, the houſes neat, and the churches fine; the number of families is ſaid to amount to 1500. It enjoys a delightful proſpect, having on one ſide the ſea, and on the other a diſtant view of the Pyrenean mountains. A conſiderable trade is carried on in this place, particularly in iron, ſteel, and wool. In the year 1728 a company was ſet up here, which trades in cacao to the Caraccas in Terra Firma.

San Sebaſtian, weſt long. 1. 50. lat. 43. 35.

24. Fontarabia is a little neat town, nine miles eaſt of San Sebaſtian, and twenty weſt of Bayonne in France, fortified both by nature and art, having a pretty good harbour, which towards the land is environed by the Pyrenees. In the year 1638 it held out a ſiege againſt the French, but in 1718 it was taken by them. Near the city runs the broad river Bidaſſoa or Vidaſſo, which is the boundary between Spain and France, being alſo, by virtue of an agreement between Ferdinand the Catholic and Lewis XII. the property of both crowns, ſo that the fare paid by paſſengers is divided among theſe two nations, the Spaniards taking of thoſe who croſs out of France to their ſide, and the French again from ſuch as paſs out of Spain to them.

Fontarabia.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

The revenues and trade of Spain. The bad œconomy of the Spaniſh monarchs with regard to the management of their American colonies. The weakneſs and indigency of that kingdom. Reflections on the late conduct of Spain towards Great Britain, &c.

THE revenues of the Spaniſh crown conſiſt chiefly of the fifths of all the riches which come from America, which, in time of peace, come home once a-year in a large fleet, as before related; but they very ſeldom import their treaſure in this manner when they are engaged in a war with any maritime power, but rather chuſe to bring it home by ſtealth in ſingle ſhips. Beſides this, they have the uſual inward reſources to ſupply the exigency of their government, the principal of which are as follows.

Revenues.

The alcalva, or the tenth of every thing ſold; the exciſe on wine, oil, tallow, ſoap, paper, ſalt-fleſh, *&c.* beſides the duties on all ſorts of goods exported or imported, or carried from one province to another, and on all goods brought into Madrid; the uſual aid of 441,176 crowns raiſed upon all under the rank of nobility; the wine-gage money; the ſtamp-duties, and the half-annates; the poſt-office; the regulations of the crown of Arragon, and the croſs-bull, by virtue of which the clergy and laity are obliged to pay a contribution towards carrying on a war with the infidels, even when no ſuch thing is in agitation; licences for eating butter, cheeſe, *&c.* in lent; the ſubſidies and tithes of the church and abbey lands; the taxes on downs, commons, and other paſtures; the tenths and patrimonial rents of Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, and Majorca; the eccleſiaſtical payments

ments for the military hoſpitals; the exciſe of Navarre; the quickſilver, coinage, &c.; all which, with ſeveral others leſs important, produce an annual revenue of between ſeven and eight millions Sterling.

The Spaniſh trade conſiſts principally with their own colonies in America, of which, as formerly obſerved, they are exceeding jealous, and never allow any other power to ſend their ſhips thither. Trade.

The dominions of the Spaniſh monarchy are undoubtedly the largeſt and richeſt of any in the world; for, upon the diſcovery of the new world, they poſſeſſed themſelves of the moſt extenſive parts of it, and thoſe which moſtly abounded in opulence. Hence it is natural to conclude, that ſo vaſt and wealthy a kingdom could not be weak and indigent: but the wonder will ceaſe when we conſider, that the great diſtance between the parts of this monarchy contributes greatly to its weakneſs, and the continual wars it maintained for ſeveral centuries were a perpetual drain to its riches. But, above all, the bad œconomy and deſpotic government of its monarchs have been more deſtructive to it than all the other cauſes put together. I ſhall therefore endeavour to point out ſome of the capital errors of the Spaniſh monarchs, with regard to the management of their American colonies, and thereby hope, in the moſt conſpicuous manner, to account for the weakneſs and indigency of that kingdom. Bad œconomy with regard to their American ſettlements.

For, *firſt*, if all the Spaniſh ſubjects, without reſtraint, had traded to theſe diſtant regions, this muſt have created ſuch a maritime force, as no other nation could have withſtood. Or, 2*dly*, ſuppoſing the trade had been reſtrained, as it is at preſent, yet if manufactures had been encouraged, ſo that the

greateſt

greateſt part of the trade of the Weſt Indies had been carried on, without being obliged to have had recourſe to foreigners, ſuch prodigious ſums muſt have centered in Spain, as would have enabled its monarchs to have given law to all their neighbours, and, in all probability, the ſupreme direction of the affairs of Europe would have fallen into the hands of the Catholic Kings. But by neglecting theſe obvious and yet certain rules, for eſtabliſhing ſolid and extenſive at leaſt, if not univerſal dominion, her Kings had recourſe to thoſe refinements in policy, which, however excellent they may appear in theory, have never yet been found to anſwer in practice. They were for fixing their commerce by conſtraint, and for eſtabliſhing power by the ſword; the firſt, experience has ſhewn to be impracticable; and the latter, perhaps, was the only method whereby they could have miſſed that end they uſed it to obtain.

In ſhort, by repeated endeavours to ſecure the wealth of the Indies to Spain, abſolutely they ſcattered it throughout Europe, and by openly graſping at univerſal monarchy, they alarmed thoſe they might have ſubdued;—ſo that, in proceſs of time, ſome of thoſe they intended for ſlaves, became their equals and allies, and ſome their maſters.

Yet thoſe princes who took theſe ſteps, were not either raſh or profuſe, but, on the contrary, were eſteemed by all the world the wiſeſt of monarchs of their reſpective times, and in many things deſerved to be ſo eſteemed. They erred not through want of capacity, or want of application, as their ſucceſſors did, but for want of conſidering things in a true light, occaſioned wholly by their fixing their eyes on that dazzling meteor, univerſal empire. Ferdinand the Catholic, in whoſe reign the weſtern world was diſcovered, was too wiſe and cunning for all he had to deal with, and by his arts and politics deſtroyed his neighbours:

bours: but inſtead of confiding in Columbus, who, of all men living, beſt deſerved his confidence, he, by an unaccountable ſtroke of policy, inclined to truſt any other perſon, however worthleſs, in the management of the new-diſcovered world.

Charles the Great, who ſucceeded him, minded very little any of the Spaniſh concerns, farther than he could render them ſubſervient to his other views.

Philip II. was ſo much taken up in endeavouring to reduce the Netherlands, enſlave Italy, conquer England, over-run France, and in annexing Portugal to his dominions, that he never conſidered his ſubjects in America farther, than as they enabled him by ſupplies to carry on theſe vaſt deſigns.

From which it evidently appears, that however wiſe or penetrating theſe princes might be, yet they certainly acted unwiſely with regard to the Indies: for inſtead of conſidering them as an eſtate, they ſeemed to look upon them only as a farm, of which they were to make preſently the moſt they could. In doing this it muſt be acknowledged they acted with ſkill and vigour; for they drew immenſe ſums from thence, which they waſted in Europe to diſturb others, and, in the end, to weaken their own ſtate.

All who are in any meaſure acquainted with the hiſtory of Europe, know, that, for a long period of time, Spain maintained wars in Flanders, Germany, France, and Italy, which created a prodigious expenſe of treaſure, and of troops; neither of which, from the death of Charles the Great, were they in any condition to ſpare. As families were reduced by the expenſe of ſerving in the army, they were inclined to ſeek new fortunes in the Indies; and thus numbers removed to theſe diſtant climes, not to cultivate the ſpacious fields, or to improve trade, but to ſtrip and plunder thoſe who were there before them.

Other great families alſo concurred with the mea-

ſures of the crown, in hopes of obtaining viceroyalties, and other lucrative offices. But though their ſchemes were beneficial to themſelves, certain it is that they contributed more and more to the ruin of the Spaniſh nation. For theſe officers did not ſtudy the intereſt of the kingdom, but minded only how to acquire fortunes and riches for themſelves; for which purpoſe they defrauded the crown, oppreſſed the ſubjects, and thereby deſtroyed all induſtry and public ſpirit.

There is another thing to be obſerved, which is certainly very extraordinary. This wrong turn in the Spaniſh policy had a very ſtrange effect, namely, it made all the enemies of that nation rich, and all its friends poor. Every body knows that the United Provinces not only made themſelves free and independent, but rich and powerful alſo, by their long wars with Spain.——Our maritime power was owing to the ſame cauſe. For if Philip II. had not diſturbed Queen Eliſabeth, the Britiſh fleet might have been as inconſiderable at the cloſe of her reign as it was at the beginning, when we were peſtered with pirates even in the narrow ſeas: and the eſtabliſhing of our plantations abroad was, in a great meaſure, owing to our expeditions againſt the Spaniards. Our manufactures at home were the conſequence of affording refuge to the King of Spain's Proteſtant ſubjects. When Queen Eliſabeth's ſucceſſor cloſed with Spain, he ſuffered by it, while France, the only country then at war with Spain, was a gainer. Both the Britiſh and Dutch were at vaſt expenſe after the reſtoration to preſerve the Spaniſh Flanders, while the Spaniards themſelves were inactive, and left all to be done by their allies. As ſoon as the tables were turned by the acceſſion of Philip V. the French became great loſers by ſiding with that nation, though they had always got by fighting againſt them; inſomuch that all the true

patriots

patriots in France complained, that while Lewis XIV. ſhewed himſelf an excellent parent in his family, he diſcharged but indifferently his truſt as the father of his people.

Thus, by ſo long a ſeries of miſmanagement, the Spaniards have brought their affairs into ſo wretched a ſituation, that they neither have, nor can have any very great benefit from their vaſt dominions in America. They are juſtly ſaid to be ſtewards for the reſt of Europe; their galleons and flota bring the gold and ſilver into Spain, but neither wiſdom nor power can keep it there, for it runs out as faſt as it comes in. At firſt ſight this may appear to be ſtrange and incredible; but when we come to examine it, the myſtery is by no means impenetrable.

The ſilver and rich commodities brought from the Indies, come not for nothing, (the King's duty excepted); and a very ſmall quantity of the goods or manufactures, for which they come, belongs to the ſubjects of the crown of Spain. It is evident therefore, that the Spaniſh mines are dug for the other European nations, and that the Spaniards are only factors for them.

The Britiſh, French, Dutch, *&c.* ſupply the Spaniards with the neceſſary aſſortments for their Weſt-India cargoes.

The goods ſupplied by the Britiſh are pepper, all ſorts of woollen goods, eſpecially bays, perpetuanas, flannels, *&c.*; hats of all ſorts, fine and coarſe; ſilk and worſted ſtockings; ſeveral ſorts of rich ſilks; copper, braſs, and iron ware; toys, clocks, watches in vaſt quantities; dried fiſh, ſalt proviſions from Ireland, with other leſs conſiderable articles, which, taken together, amount to a prodigious ſum. To balance this, it muſt be owned, that we take a large quantity of their produce, particularly wool, wines, die-ſtuff, and many other articles; yet the balance in our fa-

vour is generally reckoned to amount to ſeveral millions.

The French (ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to the Spaniſh crown) have a very large ſhare in this commerce; ſupplying all ſorts of gold and ſilver ſtuffs, rich ſilks, velvets flowered and plain; hats, ſilk and worſted ſtockings; ſlight woollen ſtuffs of the fabric of Amiens and Rheims, but chiefly of Liſle and Arras; vaſt quantities of linen, paper, cards, toys, and many other things. During the laſt general war, almoſt the whole of this commerce was in their hands, which in a great meaſure enabled them to ſupport it. Their gains in this commerce are annually reckoned to amount to two millions or more.

The Dutch, for about twenty years before the commencement of the laſt war, managed the beſt part of the Spaniſh trade; that is to ſay, they ſupplied alone, what is now furniſhed both by them and the French. They have ſtill, however, at leaſt as great a ſhare as any other nation, eſpecially in time of war. The commodities they ſend are ſpices, ſuch as nutmegs, cloves, and particularly cinnamon, of which vaſt quantities are uſed in making chocolate in America; linens of all ſorts, callicoes, ribands, ſilk twiſt, cloths, ſerges, camblets, ſhalloons, German toys, *&c.*; and it is ſaid that the Dutch draw annually out of the effects imported from the Spaniſh ſettlements, at leaſt five millions pieces of eight; and when Spain is at war with Britain, much more. Add to all this, what the Spaniards receive from other parts of Europe. So that the greateſt part of the cargo from America may be reckoned to belong to ſtrangers, on account of the intereſt they have in the goods exported thither. But beſides all this, we muſt conſider, that Spain itſelf hath many wants, much beyond what its native commodities can purchaſe; and theſe muſt of conſe-

quence

quence create further demands, on the effects brought from the Indies.

Beſides, all expenſes in Spain differ widely from the expenſes of any other nation in Europe; becauſe, ſooner or later, the greateſt part of the money diſburſed goes out of the kingdom, but never returns again. Alſo a great part of their troops are foreigners, who ſend their effects away, if they are ſo happy as to acquire any. Many of their artiſans, pedlers, and ſmall ſhopkeepers, are Frenchmen, or Italians, who either retire in the decline of life, or leave their effects to their relations in their own country. Nay the very labourers and harveſt-people come hither annually by thouſands out of the provinces of France next to Spain; and when they have done their buſineſs, and received their wages, go home again till next year.

So long as the court of Spain perſiſts in this kind of policy, her affairs muſt grow worſe and worſe. To maintain peace was certainly the true intereſt of that nation at this juncture; at leaſt till ſuch a time as ſhe had recovered ſuch a maritime force, as might have enabled her to bring home her galleons in ſpite of any foreign power. For whenever the galleons are ſtopt, as is the caſe at preſent, and thereby their ſupplies from America cut off for one or more years; it is eaſy to diſcern what troubles and diſtreſſes this muſt occaſion: and as theſe never happen but in time of war, an increaſe of expenſes meets with a deficiency of funds, and thoſe who are at the head of affairs, have at once both theſe oppoſite miſchiefs to deal with.

Although no nation in Europe can boaſt of ſo many natural advantages as Spain, yet, by her bad œconomy, ſhe labours under many inconveniencies. The firſt is the want of people, which is the reaſon that both the inland and foreign trade is, in a great meaſure, carried on by ſtrangers. Another inconvenien-

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cy reſulting from this, is the poverty of the country; and a third is the exceſſive number and unproportionable wealth of the eccleſiaſtics, ſecular and regular.

But after all, their capital and moſt dangerous inconveniency is their court's being governed by French councils. For the firſt twenty years after the acceſſion of Philip V. Spain was no better than a province to that kingdom; and her condition, for more than twenty years ſince that, has been much worſe. In ſhort, no kingdom in Europe has been ſo oppreſſed and abuſed by their princes or miniſters, who being foreigners themſelves, have always had ſome end in view injurious to the intereſt of the nation.

It may indeed be objected, that, ſince the concluſion of the laſt war, the affairs of Spain have greatly altered, her power on the continent is augmented, and an immenſe treaſure has been poured in from the Indies.

But it cannot be ſuppoſed that this is the conſequence of her connection with France: on the contrary, the real ſtrength, grandeur, and proſperity of the Spaniſh crown, muſt be the work of peace alone; and if ſhe continues to follow a contrary courſe, it cannot be long before ſhe muſt feel the diſmal effects of it.

After the concluſion of the laſt peace, it was for a long time the general opinion, that the Spaniſh miniſters had ſuch true notions of their own intereſt, as to be perſuaded, that nothing concerned them more than to live upon good terms with Great Britain; without doubt it was our intereſt likewiſe to live in a perfect correſpondence with that court. It has, however, proved impracticable to keep good terms with them; their partial conduct towards us during the preſent war with France, and their entering into a family compact with the latter, clearly demonſtrated their hoſtile intentions againſt us.

But

But what have we to apprehend from a war with Spain? What is not ſhe to apprehend from a war with us? In America, ſhe cannot hurt us, though we may ruin her. She has the ſkeleton of a navy, but it is well known, that it is deſtitute of nerves and fleſh, that is, of ſailors. We have already ruined the maritime power of France, and taken from them the greateſt part of their foreign dominions, ſo that we have little thing to fear from that quarter.

The Spaniſh fleets are at preſent blocked up in their ſeveral ports, and we have taken ſeveral rich prizes from them ſince the commencement of the war. And as we have juſt taken one of their moſt valuable and important places in the Weſt Indies, *viz.* the Havannah; by this noble capture, the whole Spaniſh main will be expoſed to our attacks; and they will be prevented from bringing home their American ſupplies, on which they chiefly depend for carrying on a war.

A clear conſcience has always been accounted half a victory. We have not ſought this quarrel, we have not provoked it; and if they will not agree to a very honourable and advantageous peace, let us (depending on the bleſſing of God upon our arms, and the juſtice of our cauſe) bravely proſecute the war, till we humble this ambitious and ungrateful branch of the houſe of Bourbon.

Having now finiſhed our account of the Spaniſh ſettlements in America, and given a brief deſcription of the kingdom of Spain, it will not be improper to add the accounts of the ſiege and ſurrender of the Havannah, which have been publiſhed by authority, the laſt whereof arrived juſt as the laſt ſheets were going to the preſs.

Accounts

Accounts of the ſiege and ſurrender of the Havannah.

A Journal of the Siege.

June 6. AFter a very fortunate paſſage through the old ſtreights of Bahama, the fleet arrived within ſight of two ſmall forts to the eaſtward of the Havannah, ſituated upon two rivers, about three miles diſtant from each other. The whole fleet brought to; and Sir George Pocock, with twelve ſail of the line, ſome frigates, and all the ſtoreſhips, bore away for the mouth of the harbour, to block up the Spaniſh men of war that were there, and to make a feint on the other ſide, in order to facilitate our landing on this. Commodore Keppel, with ſeven ſail of the line, and ſeveral ſmall frigates, was ordered to remain with the tranſports, to protect and conduct the debarkation of the troops, which was deferred till the next day. There was too much wind, and too great a ſurf from the ſhore to effect it at that time.

7. By break of day this morning, the army landed without oppoſition between the two forts Bacarans and Coxemar. The one was ſilenced, and taken poſſeſſion of by the Mercury, and another frigate; the other was taken by the Dragon of 74 guns. They were defended by a conſiderable number of peaſants and negroes, in arms, who very ſoon abandoned them, and fled into the woods. The Earl of Albemarle, with the light infantry, and grenadiers of the army, paſſed the river Coxemar, where his Lordſhip took his quarters that night. The reſt of the army lay upon their arms along the ſhore, with the picquets advanced into the woods.

8. Lord Albemarle marched the main body of the army early in the morning to a village called *Guanamacoa*, about ſix miles from the landing-place, and

ſent

ſent Col. Carleton through the Coxemar wood, with a ſmall corps of troops to the ſame village, to endeavour to cut off the retreat of a corps of the enemy, ſaid to be aſſembled there, and which his Lordſhip determined to attack. The enemy were drawn up to receive us, and very advantageouſly poſted upon a riſing ground between us and the village. Their cavalry marched down in a large body to the light infantry, who were upon the right of Col. Carleton's corps. They were very ſoon repulſed; and the whole body diſperſed before the army got up. They were about 6000 in number, chiefly militia mounted, with the regiments of Edinburgh dragoons, two companies of grenadiers, and many Spaniſh officers. This morning Col. Howe, with two battalions of grenadiers, was ſent through the woods to the Moro, to reconnoitre, and ſecure the communication to that fort from the Coxemar.

9. Lord Albemarle marched the army from Guanamacoa, and incamped in the woods between the Coxemar and the Moro, leaving a corps at Guanamacoa, under the command of Lt-Gen. Elliot, to ſecure the avenues on that ſide, and a large tract of country, which could ſupply the army with water, cattle, and vegetables.

We now diſcovered the enemy diſmantling their ſhips in the harbour, at the entrance of which they laid a boom.

10. The Moro hill, called the *Cavannos*, where the enemy were ſaid to have a poſt well fortified, was reconnoitred; and in the evening Col. Carleton, with the light infantry and grenadiers from Coxemar, went and inveſted that hill, and the Moro fort.

11. Col. Carleton attacked the redoubt about one o'clock in the afternoon, and carried it with very little loſs, and little reſiſtance on the ſide of the enemy. Here was a poſt eſtabliſhed, and the work called by the name of the *Spaniſh redoubt.*

12. The Moro fort was farther reconnoitred by his Lordſhip's order. It was difficult to reconnoitre it with much accuracy, it being ſurrounded with thick bruſhy woods, which could not be ſeen through, and were moſtly impaſſable. It was obſerved the parapet was thin, and all of maſonry; and it was therefore judged adviſable to erect a battery againſt it, as near as the cover of the woods would admit of. There was accordingly a plan fixed upon, at about 250 yards diſtance, and preparations were accordingly made, and parties ordered out for faſcines, and collecting earth; which was a work of great labour, the ſoil being exceedingly thin and ſcarce. The landing of the ſtores was at the ſame time carried on with great diligence by the fleet.

13. The battery mentioned yeſterday was begun; as alſo a howitzer-battery, beyond the Spaniſh redoubt, to remove the ſhipping farther up the river. They threw a great deal of random fire into the woods, and annoyed us very much.

Col. Howe, with 300 light infantry, and two battalions of grenadiers, was detached to land at Chorera, about ſeven miles to the weſtward of the town, to ſecure a footing, and engage ſome part of the enemy's attention upon that ſide.

19. There was a mortar-battery begun upon the right near the ſea, for one thirteen-inch, two ten-inch, and fourteen royal mortars.

20. Parallels cut in the woods to the right and left of the battery, and a faſcine-line begun, to ſecure the guards from the enemy's fire.

23. Another battery made upon the beach, to advance the royals in the battery of the 19th nearer the fort.

24. A battery for two howitzers begun near the limekiln; likewiſe againſt the ſhipping, to remove them farther up the harbour, which had its effect.

25. A

25. A battery for a thirteen-inch mortar begun near the limekiln, againſt the ſhipping.

26. A battery begun againſt the fort for four guns and two mortars, upon the left of the firſt battery.

29. The enemy at day-break landed two detachments of 500 men each, of grenadiers and choſen men, with a detachment of armed negroes and mulattoes with each corps; one upon the right under the Moro, the other upon the left near the limekiln. The picquets and advanced poſts prevented the ſucceſs of theſe detachments, by repulſing them, killing, and taking near 200, beſides wounding a great number, who moſtly got off by the favour of the woods. Our loſs was only ten men killed and wounded.

30. This day was chiefly taken up in carrying ammunition and neceſſaries to the ſeveral batteries, to provide for their opening next morning; which was done by the ſoldiers, and 500 blacks purchaſed by Lord Albemarle at Martinico and Antigua, for that purpoſe.

July 1. This morning we opened two batteries of cannon, which, with our mortars, made up a fire as follows, *viz.*

	GUNS.		MORTARS.	
	24 Pounders.	13 Inch.	10 Inch.	Royals
Battery on the left called *William's battery*	4	2	0	0
Grand battery —	8	2	0	0
Left parallel —	0	0	2	12
Batteries on the beach	0	2	1	14
Total —	12	6	3	26

The enemy's fire exceeded ours upon the front attacked, in the number of guns, which amounted to ſixteen or ſeventeen, from ſix to twelve pounders. They played one mortar of eight inches, and that very ſeldom. Upon the whole, we reckoned our fire ſuperior to theirs conſiderably, beſides the difference

of the ſecurity of our works, theirs being only a parapet of thin maſonry.

About ten o'clock, the Cambridge of 80 guns, the Dragon of 74 guns, and the Marlborough of 66, went in and lay againſt the fort: the Cambridge lay within grape-ſhot. They continued firing for above three hours, which the fort received and returned with great ſteadineſs. At length the ſhips were ordered off. The Cambridge and Dragon ſuffered much, particularly the former. The attacked front of the fort did not ſeem to ſuffer much from their fire, it was ſo much above them; but they ſtill did us a conſiderable ſervice, in taking up the enemy's attention for that time, which gained us a ſuperiority in the number of guns.

2. Our batteries continued their fire with great ſucceſs, and beat down the front attacked, as faſt as could be wiſhed or expected, particularly the eight-gun battery; but unhappily, about noon, we were obliged to ſlacken, that battery being in danger of catching fire from the conſtant fire kept up, and the drineſs of the faſcines, having had no rain for fourteen days. However, before the evening, the enemy's fire was reduced to two guns, which fired but ſeldom.

3. We flattered ourſelves the fire was quite out; but, about two in the morning, it broke out again with great violence. Both water and people were ſent as faſt as poſſible, but unhappily too late: the fire had inſinuated itſelf where water could not reach it, nor earth ſtifle it. Thus ſeventeen days labour of five or ſix hundred men, and which muſt have let us into the fort in a few days, was now baffled, and to do over again. There was another embrazure added this night to William's battery.

4. and 5. Theſe two nights our endeavours ſtill continued to extinguiſh the fire; and, with much difficulty,

culty, there were two embrazures ſaved upon the right, and the epaulement for mortars upon the left. The fire of theſe two embrazures was continued until the guns were diſabled, and two more were ſerved *en barbette*, until the enemy's fire obliged the men to give it up.

It was determined to convert the mortar-battery in the left parallel into a battery for cannon; which was accordingly begun, with ſome improvements to the other works, which the enemy's fire from the town, Fort La Punta, ſhips of war, and floating batteries, had rendered neceſſary.

6. Two more embrazures were added this night to William's battery, and a place fixed upon near the ſtone redoubt for another battery of four guns,

9. This morning we had twelve guns in battery, *viz.* William's battery of ſeven guns, and the left parallel of five guns, beſides our mortars. The enemy fired with about eight or nine.

10. At night a battery for four guns begun in the right parallel.

11. This morning the four-gun battery near the ſtone redoubt, and two guns upon the ſaved part of the grand battery newly repaired, opened, and played with ſucceſs. We now had eighteen guns in play to eight or nine, which the enemy ſtill kept up; for, by their uninterrupted communication with the town, and the great aſſiſtance of their ſailors, who ſerve their guns, they always made the loſſes of the day good at night.

This forenoon two guns in the left parallel battery failed, one by running, the other by cracking; the carriage of a third was diſabled upon William's battery.

In the afternoon the merlons of the grand battery again caught fire, and extended from right to left, and the whole was irreparably conſumed.

12. The diſabled guns in the left parallel and in William's battery were replaced laſt night, ſo that we

ſtill

ſtill had ſixteen guns in play. Towards noon the carriages of the three guns in the ſtone redoubt battery were diſabled.

13. This morning there was a battery of four thirty-two pounders opened on the right parallel againſt the left baſtion, and made conſiderable havock.

There was another battery of four guns ordered to be made upon the right of it, as ſoon as the materials can be collected.

The ruins of the burnt battery were ordered to be converted into a line for muſketry at the ſame time.

There were two guns remounted in the night upon the battery near the ſtone redoubt, but there were two more diſmounted immediately afterwards.

14. The four guns in the ſtone redoubt battery were laſt night mounted on ſea-carriages: we had now twenty guns againſt five or ſix, which the enemy began with in the morning. They were reduced to two before dark.

The whole front attacked, appeared in a moſt ruinous condition; yet the enemy, though kept in a conſtant hurry and confuſion, behaved with ſpirit.

Preparations for carrying on approaches had now been in hand ſome days. The 40th regiment was employed in making gabions, and ſeveral men of war in making junk, blinds, or mantelets, and ſome bales of cotton purchaſed to ſerve as woolpacks. As our approaches muſt be entirely raiſed above ground, on account of the rocks, theſe precautions were neceſſary.

15. We played with the ſame number of guns as yeſterday. The enemy fired in the morning with ſix or ſeven guns, but were totally ſilenced before night.

16. Our fire as yeſterday. The enemy fired in the morning with two guns, and only twice with each.

They

They fire the reſt of the day with muſketry and wall-pieces, but not much with either.

This evening the materials for the approaches began to be advanced.

The guns and ammunition are carrying up for the new battery, which is to open to-morrow morning. The enemy ſeemed to be employed in making up freſh merlons upon the face of the right baſtion.

17. The Valiant's battery opened this morning between ten and eleven. The enemy had no fire on the front attacked, but fired two guns from the left face of the left baſtion upon William's battery, and up along the cavannoes. This afternoon we began to ſtuff gabions with faſcines for advancing our ſap. In the evening our ſap was begun; but there being a thick thorny wood to cut through, was advanced but a little way.

18. The enemy's fire this morning was the ſame as yeſterday. We had two howitzers put in Dixon's battery to fire into the breaches. The ſap was carried on this night about two thirds of the way to the ſmall battery at the foot of the ſorties before the right baſtion. There was likewiſe a ſmall lodgment made at the edge of the wood, before the point of the weſt baſtion.

19. The enemy fired this morning with three guns from the front attacked, but they were ſoon ſilenced. About noon we took poſſeſſion of the covered way before the point of the right baſtion, and the former ſap carried on at night, and another begun along the covered way before the right face, where we made a lodgment.

20. This morning the miners were entered under the right, or ſea-face of the right baſtion, the only place where there was a practicability of doing it at the foot of the wall; for the ditch of the front attacked is 70 feet deep from the edge of the counterſcarp, and

upwards

upwards of 40 feet, of that depth, ſunk in the rock; but fortunately there was a thin ridge of the rock left at the point of the baſtion, to cover the extremity of the ditch from being open to the ſea, and to prevent ſurpriſes; and by means of this ridge the miner paſſed, with ſome difficulty, to the foot of the wall, which he could do no where elſe without the help of ſcaling-ladders, an operation which would be both tedious and dangerous. This ridge was ſo narrow, that there was no poſſibility of covering a paſſage upon it from the fire of the oppoſite flank; but we took our chance, and were glad to find it, even with that diſadvantage: it coſt us only three or four men during the whole time. We began the ſame afternoon to ſink a ſhaft without the covered way, for mines to throw the counterſcarp into the ditch to fill it up in caſe of occaſion. We continued our ſap along the glacis, and got a gun into the ſaliant angle of the covered way againſt the oppoſite flank. In the day-time we had parties for making faſcines and other preparations againſt the town, after the Moro ſhould be taken.

21. Our ſappers and miners continued to carry on their work. In this they were much retarded, by meeting often with very large ſtones, which coſt them much labour to remove. In the night, there being a ſuſpicion that there were very few men in the fort, there was a ſerjeant and twelve men that ſcaled the ſea-line a little to the right of the mine, and found only about nine or ten men aſleep in that part of the work; they wakened before our men got to them, and ran off immediately to alarm the reſt: the ſerjeant and his party then came down; and being ordered up a ſecond time, found they had taken the alarm, and a conſiderable number aſſembled, and ready to make an oppoſition. Had it been practicable to ſuccour them briſkly, the fort might have been carried

at

at that time; but the attempt was not to be repeated.

22. About four this morning there was a ſally made by the enemy from the town, which, by the information of priſoners, amounted to 1500 men, divided into three different parties. One puſhed up the bank behind the Shepherd's battery: they were ſtopped for near an hour by the guard poſted there, conſiſting only of about thirty men, commanded by Lt-Col. Stuart, of the 90th regiment, until he was joined by about 100 ſappers, and the third battalion of Royal Americans; the fire continued hot all that time; the enemy were then driven down the bank with great ſlaughter; as many as could, got into their boats, and many leaped into the water, where there were 150 drowned. Another party endeavoured to puſh up by the ſaliant angle of the Moro to attack our ſappers upon the glacis, and their covering party; but they were beat off in a very ſhort time. The third party went up the bank of the Spaniſh redoubt; but finding our people ready to receive them, they returned very peaceably from whence they came. The alarm was entirely over, and our people returned to their work by eight o'clock. The enemy's loſs was ſaid to be near 400 men, killed, drowned, and taken, beſides the wounded that got off. We had about fifty men killed and wounded. The enemy cannonaded us moſt violently, when their troops were beat down the bank, from the Punta weſt baſtion, and from the lines and flanks of the entrance, and from their ſhipping: they even killed ſome of their own men, ſo eager they were to kill us. At the ſame time that their troops were attacking, we ſaw they had great numbers paraded in the town, and ſome of them going into boats to ſuſtain the attack; but when they perceived the rough treatment their comrades had met with, they prudently dropped the attempt.

23. The former works continue in hand, *viz.* ſapping, mining, and making faſcines. This day a ſketch of the batteries againſt the town, and defences of the harbour, to be erected along the cavannos after the Moro ſhould be taken, were laid before the Earl of Albemarle, and approved of by his Lordſhip.

24. The former works in hand, and the materials collecting for a four-gun battery, to the left of the Spaniſh redoubt, to be called

This battery to be opened againſt La Fuerza, and to enfilade the two next flanks, facing the entrance of the harbour. There was a party of 600 negroes ordered this day for faſcine-making, and to be continued upon that ſervice; but they ſeldom amounted to above a half, or even a third of that number, occaſioned by ſickneſs, and other preſſing duties.

25. The ſame work in hand as yeſterday. There was a road made from the rear of William's battery up to the Spaniſh redoubt, covered from the town, to ſerve as a communication to the new-deſigned batteries upon the cavannos. This afternoon there was a battery for five guns begun to the right of the rear of Dixon's battery, to open againſt the Punta. This battery is called

26. The former works in hand, and the battery begun to the left of the Spaniſh redoubt. This morning a two-decked merchant's frigate, acroſs the entrance before the weſt baſtion, within the boom, and near the ſunk ſhips, was ſunk by a howitzer, near Dixon's battery: this ſhip had annoyed us very much.

27. The former works in hand, and a mortar-battery begun at the Spaniſh redoubt: there was likewiſe a battery begun for three guns, to fire upon boats landing at the Moro; which would have been of conſiderable uſe all along, if it could have been ſerved without erecting other batteries to check the fire of the Moro itſelf, upon that ſide: but that could not

be

be undertaken, as our troops were already ſufficiently employed in the works of the real attack. Brig. Burton arrived with the firſt of the troops from North America, and was ordered to the weſt ſide.

28. The former works in hand. This afternoon a large merchant-ſhip of the enemy's caught fire by lightning within the harbour, and blew up in ten minutes. At night there was a battery for two mortars begun to the right of the Spaniſh redoubt; and one for five guns againſt Fort la Punta, upon the left of our ſap, near the point of the Moro.

29. The former works in hand. The mines were this day preparing for being ſprung to-morrow morning.

30. About two this morning the enemy ſent two boats and a floating-battery out of the harbour, to fire into the ditch where our miners were at work: they fired grape and ſmall arms, but without any other effect than a ſhort interruption of the work: the covering party fired ſo ſmartly upon them, that they were ſoon obliged to retire. About two o'clock in the afternoon the mines were ſprung; that in the counterſcarp had not a very conſiderable effect, but that in the baſtion having thrown down a part of both faces, made a breach which the general and chief engineer thought practicable; upon which the troops under orders for the aſſault were ordered to mount; which they did with the greateſt reſolution; and forming very expeditiouſly upon the top of the breach, ſoon drove the enemy from every part of the ramparts. The Spaniards had about 130 men, with ſeveral officers, killed; about 400 threw down their arms, and were made priſoners; the reſt were either killed in boats, or drowned in attempting to eſcape to the Havannah. Our loſs in this glorious affair amounted to two officers killed, and about thirty men killed and wounded.

31. Our preparations were carried on with all poſſible diligence, for erecting the intended batteries upon the cavannos. The enemy's fire continued very hot againſt the Moro; they pointed chiefly at that part of the work where the ciſtern was, in hopes, no doubt, of letting out the water. Lord Albemarle went this evening to the weſt ſide of the town to reconoitre the ground there, and ſee in what manner attacks might be carried on with moſt advantage on that ſide, in caſe of occaſion.

Auguſt 1. The enemy's fire ſtill continued againſt the Moro. This evening Gen. Keppel determined to erect the remainder of the batteries to be erected upon the cavannos; ſome by the firſt and third brigades, and ſome by the ſailors, and to begin them to-morrow night.

2. This morning, before day, the enemy ſent down a 74 gun ſhip into the entrance, and moored her oppoſite to the Fuerza; ſhe directed her fire likewiſe againſt the Moro. There were two howitzers run into the battery to fire at her, which incommoded her a good deal. The batteries mentioned yeſterday were begun this night by the two brigades and ſailors; they conſiſted of thirty-five pieces of cannon.

3. The former works in hand, and carried on with diligence. This morning the chief engineer was ordered to the weſtward of the town, to reconnoitre the ground, for attacking that ſide in caſe of occaſion. This evening the enemy's ſhip oppoſite to the Fuerza, mentioned yeſterday, was removed by our howitzers, with a good deal of confuſion.

4. The chief engineer reported to Lord Albemarle, that as the Moro was now in our poſſeſſion, there was to the weſtward of the town a very advantageous attack to be formed againſt the polygons next the Punta, by the cover of a bank running along ſhore from the Lazaro to Fort la Punta, ſuppoſing that fort ſilenced.

That

That there was a road upon the bank which was, for a conſiderable way, covered both from Fort la Punta and every part of the town; that the road was at preſent ſtopped up by trees felled on each ſide, but might be eaſily cleared; but as attacks upon that ground would in ſome degree ſtand in the line of fire of our batteries upon the oppoſite ſide, it would be moſt adviſeable to delay them until theſe batteries had in ſome meaſure effected their deſign, and eſpecially as they might of themſelves, perhaps, anſwer the end without farther trouble.

5. The works and batteries on the Moro ſide in hand as before, and ſome of the platforms begun to be laid. It was now difficult to get materials for this purpoſe, thoſe from England and Martinico being expended; but by the Admiral's aſſiſtance the materials were got. Lord Albemarle took up his headquarters this evening on the weſt ſide.

6. The works in hand as yeſterday; and being conſiderably advanced, and the men much fatigued, there was none allowed for this night.——There were thirty carpenters from the provincial troops, lately arrived, now employed to aſſiſt in making platforms. There was a command of engineers, and a proportion of entrenching tools ordered to the weſt road, the former to go as ſoon as the batteries and works on the eaſt ſide ſhould be ready, and the tools to be ſhipped immediately. The chief engineer was ordered to repair to that ſide, and there remain.

7. The former works upon the eaſt ſide were going on, and faſcine-parties ordered to work on the weſt ſide.

8. The former works in hand on the eaſt ſide; but faſcine-making was retarded conſiderably on the weſt ſide for want of tools. This afternoon the ſhip arrived on the weſt ſide with the intrenching tools, but the ſhip's crew being very ſickly, there were none landed.

landed. In the evening Lord Albemarle went himſelf to reconnoitre the road and ground between the Lazaro and the Punta, and ordered ſome poſts to be taken up farther advanced.

9. The intrenching tools were landed this day, by the aſſiſtance of the men of war, in the afternoon. The enemy having diſcovered our reconnoitring towards the Punta for ſome days paſt, ſet ſome houſes near the road on fire, to prevent their being a ſhelter for us. In the evening there was a party of 200 men ordered to make a redoubt upon the road to the Punta, with a covering party of the ſame number. The place intended for the redoubt, which was partly upon the road, being much incumbered, as mentioned before, all they could do was to clear off the trees, and form an abatés in the front and flanks for preſent defence.

10. At day-break this morning the enemy having diſcovered the covering party, and ſuſpecting our having been at work, began to cannonade along the road pretty warmly, but with little execution. About ten in the morning, our batteries being ready to open on the eaſt ſide, and we to open ground on the weſt ſide, Lord Albemarle ſent a flag of truce by an aid-de-camp to acquaint the governor with the ruin that threatened the place, and ſummoned him to capitulate. The governor, after keeping the flag from that time till between three and four in the afternoon, in the open fields, at ſome hundred yards diſtance from the works, ſent him back, and before he had got two thirds of the way, began to fire: we at the ſame time ſaw many people leaving the town with loads; in the evening there was a party ſent to carry on the works as before.

11. At day-break this morning all our batteries opened, conſiſting of forty-three pieces of cannon, and eight mortars. The advantage of poſition, as well

as

as ſuperior fire, became viſible very ſoon. Fort Punta was ſilenced between nine and ten. The north baſtion almoſt in about an hour afterwards; but now and then fired a ſhot. Between one and two we diſcovered a great number of the enemy running off from the Punta, as if they had abandoned it. About two o'clock there were flags of truce hung out all round the garriſon, and on board the admiral's ſhip: ſoon after, there arrived a flag of truce at our head quarters by Don Fort Major, his ſon, and an interpreter, which proved to be with propoſals for a capitulation. Sir George Pocock was then ſent for, and the buſineſs entered upon, as ſoon as he came. The works were ſtopt for this night, and the flag returned about duſk.

12. The truce continued. This day the flag was ſent in, and returned; and ſent in again in the evening. The works were ordered to be carried on as before, which gave room to expect that hoſtilities were to be renewed in the morning; but the capitulation was ſettled before that time.

13. This day the capitulation was ſigned and ſealed. The long time it took to be ſettled, is ſaid to be owing to an unreaſonable earneſtneſs in the enemy to ſave their ſhipping, which they at length gave up.

14. About ten this morning, Gen. Keppel with men took poſſeſſion of Fort La Punta, and, about noon, of the Punta gate and Baſtion; at both which places there were Britiſh colours hoiſted, having been evacuated by the enemy. Brig. Howe took poſſeſſion of the land-gate, with two battalions of grenadiers, much about the ſame time.

Articles

Articles of capitulation agreed upon between their Excellencies Sir George Pocock, Knight of the Bath, and the Earl of Albemarle, commanding the fleet and army of his Britannic Majesty, on their parts; and by their Excellencies the Marquis of Real Transporte, commander in chief of the squadron of his Catholic Majesty, and Don Juan de Prado, governor of the Havannah, for the surrender of the city and all its dependencies, with all the Spanish ships in the harbour.

Preliminary article.

FOrt La Punta, and the land-gate shall be delivered to his Britannic Majesty's troops to-morrow morning, the 13th of August, at twelve o'clock; at which time it is expected the following articles of capitulation shall be signed and ratified.

Art. I. The garrison, consisting of the infantry, artillery-men, and dragoons, the different militia of the towns in this island, shall march out of the land-gate the 20th instant, provided in that time no relief arrives, so as to raise the siege, with all the military honours, arms shouldered, drums beating, colours flying, six field pieces with twelve rounds each, and as many to each soldier; and likewise the regiments shall take out with them their military chests. And the governor shall have six covered waggons, which are not be examined upon any pretence whatever.

Art. I. The garrison, consisting of the regular troops, the dragoons dismounted, (leaving their horses for his Britannic Majesty's service), in consideration of their vigorous and gallant defence of the Moro fort, and the Havannah, shall march out of the Punta gate with two pieces of cannon, and six rounds for each gun, and the same number for each soldier, drums beating, colours flying, and all the honours of war. The military chest refused. The governor will be allowed as many boats as are necessary to transport his

baggage

baggage and effects on board the ſhip deſtined for him. The militia without the town, as well as thoſe within, to deliver up their arms to his Britannic Majeſty's commiſſary who ſhall be appointed to receive them.

Art. II. That the ſaid garriſon ſhall be allowed to take out of this city, all their effects, equipage, and money, and tranſport themſelves with it to another part of this iſland; for which purpoſe ſhall be allowed and permitted to come freely into the ſaid city, all the beaſts of burden, and carts. And this article is to extend to and include all other officers belonging to his Majeſty employed in the adminiſtration of juſtice, intendant of marines, commiſſary of war, and treaſurer-general, who are to have the choice of going out of the city.

Art. II. The officers of the above garriſon will be allowed to carry with them all their private effects and money, on board the ſhips which will be provided at the expenſe of his Britannic Majeſty, to tranſport the garriſon to the neareſt port of Old Spain. The intendant of marine, the commiſſary of war, and thoſe employed in the management of his Catholic Majeſty's revenues, as ſoon as they have delivered over their accounts, ſhall have liberty to leave the iſland if they deſire it.

Art. III. That the marines, and the ſhips crews in this harbour, who have ſerved on ſhore, ſhall obtain, on their going out, the ſame honour as the garriſon of the city; and ſhall proceed with thoſe honours on board the ſaid ſhips, that they may, together with their commander in chief, Don Gutierres de Hivia, Marquis del Real Tranſporte, and commander-general of his Catholic Majeſty's naval forces in America, ſail in their ſaid ſhips, as ſoon as the port is open, with all their effects and money, in order to proceed to ſome other port belonging to the dominion of

Spain; in doing which, they will oblige themſelves, that, during their navigation to their deſigned port, they ſhall not attack any ſquadron or ſingle ſhip belonging to his Britannic Majeſty or his allies, nor merchant-veſſels belonging to his ſubjects; and likewiſe they are not to be attacked by any ſquadron or ſingle ſhip belonging to his Britannic Majeſty, nor any of his allies. Likewiſe liberty ſhall be given to go on board the ſaid ſhips the aforementioned troops, and ſhips crews, with their officers, and others belonging to them, together with the effects and monies that are in the city, belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, with the equipages, and effects in ſpecie of gold or ſilver belonging to the ſaid Marquis, and others employed in the different marine offices; granting them likewiſe every thing that ſhould be neceſſary to protect them and their ſhips, as well as in the fitting them out, from his Catholic Majeſty's ſtores; and whatever more ſhould be wanted, at the current prices of the country.

Art. III. The Marquis del Real Tranſporte, with his officers, ſailors, and marines, as making part of the garriſon, ſhall be treated in every reſpect as the governor and regular troops. All ſhips in the harbour of the Havannah, and all money and effects whatever belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, ſhall be delivered up to ſuch perſons as ſhall be appointed by Sir George Pocock, and the Earl of Albemarle, to receive them.

Art. IV, That all the artillery, ſtores, and ammunition, and proviſions, belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, (except ſuch as are well known to belong to the ſquadron), an exact inventory ſhall be made thereof, by the aſſiſtance of four perſons, ſubjects of the King of Spain, which the governor ſhall appoint, and by four other ſubjects to his Britannic Majeſty, who are to be elected by his Excellency the Earl of Albemarle,

Albemarle, who ſhall keep poſſeſſion of all till both ſovereigns come to another determination.

Art. IV. All the artillery, and all kinds of arms, ammunition, and naval ſtores, without reſerve, ſhall be delivered up to ſuch perſons as ſhall be appointed to receive them by Sir George Pocock and the Earl of Albemarle.

Art. V. That as by mere accident were reſiding in this city, his Excellency the Count de Superunda, lieutenant-general of his Catholic Majeſty's forces, and late viceroy of Peru, and Don Diego Tavares, major-general of his Majeſty's forces, and late governor of Carthagena, both here in their return to Spain: theſe gentlemen and their families ſhall be comprehended in this capitulation, allowing them to poſſeſs their equipages, and other effects belonging to them, and to grant them veſſels to tranſport them to Spain.

Art. V. The Count Superunda, lieutenant-general of his Catholic Majeſty's forces, and late viceroy of the kingdom of Peru, and Don Diego Tavares, knight of the order of St James, major-general, and late governor of Carthagena, ſhall be conveyed to Old Spain in the moſt commodious ſhips that can be provided, ſuitable to the rank, dignity, and character of thoſe noble perſons, with all their effects, money, and attendants, at ſuch time as may be moſt convenient for themſelves.

Art. VI. That the Catholic apoſtolic Roman religion ſhall be maintained and preſerved in the ſame manner and form as it has hitherto been, in all the dominions belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, without putting the leaſt reſtraint to any of their public worſhips, which actually are the rites of the church, and practiſed in and out of their temples, to which, as well as the ſolemn days celebrated therein, there ſhall be the due regard they have hitherto had; and that the eccleſiaſtical body, the convents, monaſteries, hoſpitals,

and the different orders, univerſities, and colleges, ſhall remain in the full enjoyment of their rights, together with their effects and rents, moveables, or tenements, in the ſame manner as they have hitherto enjoyed.

Art. VI. Granted.

Art. VII. That the biſhop of Cuba is to enjoy all the rights, privileges, and prerogatives, that as ſuch belong to him, for the direction and ſpiritual inſtructions to thoſe of the ſame Catholic religion, with the nomination of curates, and other eccleſiaſtical miniſters, with the annexed juriſdiction over them, as he has had hitherto, with the freedom to receive all the rents and revenues within his biſhopric: which privileges ſhall extend likewiſe to all other eccleſiaſtics in thoſe ſhares belonging to them.

Art. VII. Granted with a reſerve, that in the appointment of prieſts, and other eccleſiaſtical officers, it ſhall be with the conſent and approbation of his Britannic Majeſty's governor.

Art. VIII. That within the monaſteries of religious men and women, ſhall be obſerved and kept the ſame interior government as hitherto, under ſubordination to their real ſuperiors, agreeable to the eſtabliſhment of their particular inſtitutes, without any novelty or variation.

Art. VIII. Granted.

Art. IX. That in the ſame manner as the effects and monies in this city belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, is to be ſhipped on board of the ſquadron in this harbour to tranſport the ſame to Spain, all the tobacco which likewiſe belongs to his Catholic Majeſty. And alſo ſhall be permitted, even in time of war, to his Catholic Majeſty, the purchaſe of tobacco on the ſaid iſland, in the diſtrict ſubject to the King of Great Britain, at the eſtabliſhed prices, and the free exportation of the ſame to Spain in Spaniſh or foreign veſ-

 ſels,

ſels, and for which purpoſe, and receiving, and keeping, and curing the ſame, ſhall be kept, and poſſeſſed the warehouſes, with all other buildings which are deſtined for that purpoſe; and likewiſe ſhall be allowed and maintained here, all ſuch officers as ſhould be neceſſary to manage the ſame.

Art. IX. Refuſed.

Art. X. That in conſideration that this port is ſituated by nature, for the relief of thoſe who navigate in thoſe parts of Spaniſh and Britiſh America, that this port ſhall be reputed and allowed to be neutral to the ſubjects of his Catholic Majeſty, who are to be admitted in and out freely, to take in ſuch refreſhments as they may be in need of, as well as repairing their veſſels, paying the current prices for every thing, and that they are not to be inſulted or interrupted in their navigation by any veſſels belonging to his Britannic Majeſty, or his ſubjects or allies, from the Capes Catoche on the coaſt of Campeche; and that of St Antonio to the weſtward of this iſland; nor from the Tortuga bank to this port; and from here till they get into the latitude of 33° north, till both their Majeſties agree to the contrary.

Art. X. Refuſed.

Art. XI. That all the inhabitants, Europeans and Creols in this city ſhall be left in the free poſſeſſion and management of all their offices and employments, which they have by purchaſe, as well as of their eſtates, and all other effects, moveables, or tenements of any quality or kind whatever, without being obliged to account on any other terms than thoſe on which they did to his Catholic Majeſty.

Art. XI. Granted. And they ſhall be allowed to continue in their offices of property as long as they conduct themſelves properly.

Art. XII. That the ſaid offices ſhall preſerve and keep the rights and privileges which they have hitherto enjoyed,

enjoyed, and they ſhall be governed in his Britannic Majeſty's name, under the ſame laws and adminiſtration of juſtice, and under ſuch conditions as they have done hitherto in the dominions of Spain, in every particular, appointing their judges and officers of juſtice agreeable to their uſual cuſtom.

Art. XII. Granted.

Art. XIII. That to any of the aforeſaid inhabitants of this city who ſhould not chuſe to ſtay, it ſhall be permitted them to take out their property and riches in ſuch ſpecie as ſhould be moſt convenient to them, and to diſpoſe of their eſtates, or to leave them under the adminiſtration of others, and to tranſport themſelves with them, to ſuch of his Catholic Majeſty's dominions as they ſhould chuſe, granting them four years to execute the ſame, and veſſels to tranſport them, either upon purchaſe or on freight, with the neceſſary paſſports, and authority to bear arms againſt the Moors and Turks, upon this expreſs condition, that they ſhall not uſe them againſt his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, or his allies, who are not to inſult them, nor abandon them; and that this and the two foregoing articles, are to comprehend and admit to be included all his Catholic Majeſty's miniſters and officers, as well civil, marine, and military, who are married and eſtabliſhed with families and eſtates in this city, in order that they may obtain the ſame privileges as the other inhabitants.

Art. XIII. The inhabitants will be allowed to diſpoſe of, and remove their effects to any part of the King of Spain's dominions in veſſels at their own expenſe, for which they will have proper paſſports. It is underſtood, that ſuch officers as have property in this iſland ſhall have the ſame indulgence allowed the reſt of the inhabitants.

Art. XIV. That to theſe people no ill conſequence ſhall ariſe on account of having taken up arms, owing

to

to their fidelity, and their being inliſted in the militia on account of the neceſſity of war; neither ſhall the Engliſh troops be permitted to plunder; but, on the contrary, they ſhall completely enjoy their rights and prerogatives as other ſubjects of his Britannic Majeſty, allowing them to return, without the leaſt hinderance or impediment, from the country into the city, with all their families, equipages, and effects, as they went out of the city on account of this invaſion, and who are to be comprehended in the preſent articles; and that neither of them ſhall be incommoded with having troops quartered in their houſes, but that they ſhall be lodged in particular quarters, as it has been practiſed during the Spaniſh government.

Art. XIV. Granted. Except that in caſes of neceſſity, quartering the troops muſt be left to the direction of the governor. All the King's ſlaves are to be delivered up to the perſons who will be appointed to receive them.

Art. XV. That the effects detained in this city belonging to the merchants at Cadiz, which have arrived here in the different regiſter-ſhips, and in which are intereſted all the European nations, a ſufficient paſſport ſhall be granted to the ſupercargoes thereof, that they may freely remit the ſame with the regiſter-ſhips, without running the riſk of being inſulted in their paſſage.

Art. XV. Refuſed.

Art. XVI. That thoſe civil, or other officers, who have had charge of the management of the adminiſtration and diſtribution of the royal treaſure, or any other affair of a peculiar nature, from his Catholic Majeſty, they are to be left with the free uſe of all thoſe papers which concern the diſcharge of their duty, with free liberty to remit or to carry them to Spain for that purpoſe; and the ſame ſhall be underſtood

ſtood with the managers of the royal company eſtabliſhed in this city.

Art. XVI. All public papers to be delivered to the ſecretaries of the Admiral and General for inſpection, which will be returned to his Catholic Majeſty's officers, if not found neceſſary for the government of the iſland.

Art. XVII. That the public records are to remain in cuſtody of thoſe officers who poſſeſs them, without permitting any of the papers to be taken away, for fear of their being miſlaid, as it may be productive of great prejudice, not only to the public, but alſo to many private people.

Art. XVII. Anſwered in the foregoing article.

Art. XVIII. That the officers and ſoldiers who are ſick in the hoſpital, ſhall be treated in the ſame manner as the garriſon, and after their recovery they ſhall be granted horſes or veſſels to tranſport themſelves where the reſt of the garriſon goes, with every thing neceſſary for their ſecurity and ſubſiſtence during their voyage; and before which they ſhall be provided with ſuch proviſions and medicines as ſhall be demanded by the hoſpital-keepers, and ſurgeons thereof; and all others under them, who are included in this capitulation, are to ſtay or go as they ſhall prefer.

Art. XVIII. Granted. The Governor leaving proper commiſſaries to furniſh them with proviſions, ſurgeons, medicines, and neceſſaries, at the expenſe of his Catholic Majeſty while they remain in the hoſpital.

Art. XIX. That all the priſoners made on both ſides ſince the 6th of June, when the Engliſh ſquadron appeared before this harbour, ſhall be returned reciprocally, and without any ranſom, within the term of two months, for thoſe who were ſent away from the city to other towns in this iſland, which was done for want of proper places of ſecurity here, or before, if they can arrive.

Art. XIX.

Art. XIX. This article cannot be concluded upon, till the Britiſh priſoners are delivered up.

Art. XX. That as ſoon as the articles of this capitulation are agreed upon, and hoſtages given on each ſide for the performance thereof, the land-gate ſhall be delivered into the poſſeſſion of his Britannic Majeſty's troops, that they may poſt a guard there; and the garriſon ſhall have one themſelves, until the place is evacuated, when his Excellency the Earl of Albemarle will be pleaſed to ſend ſome ſoldiers as a ſafeguard to the churches, convents, and treaſuries, and all other places of conſequence.

Art. XX. The number of ſafeguards required for the ſecurity of the churches, convents, and other places, ſhall be granted. The reſt of the article is anſwered in the preliminary article.

Art. XXI. That it ſhall be allowed to the governor and commander in chief of this ſquadron, to diſpatch a packet-boat with advice to his Catholic Majeſty, as well as to other people who have a right to the ſame advice, to which veſſel there ſhall be granted a ſafe and ſecure paſſport for the voyage.

Art. XXI. As the troops are to be ſent to Old Spain, a packet is unneceſſary.

Art. XXII. That the troops of the Punta caſtle ſhall have the ſame honours as the garriſon of the town, and that they ſhall march out by one of the moſt practicable breaches.

Art. XXII. Granted.

Art. XXIII. That the capitulation is to be underſtood literally, and without any interpretation, on any pretext whatever, of making repriſals, on account of not having complied with the foregoing articles.

Art. XXIII. Granted.

ALBEMARLE. G. POCOCK.

El Marquis del REAL TRANSPORTE.

JUAN DE PRADO.

Admiralty-office, Sept. 8. 1762.

Copy of a letter from Sir George Pocock to Mr Clevland, ſecretary to the admiralty, dated on board the Namure, off Chorera river, the 14*th of July* 1762.

SIR,

AGreeable to my intentions ſignified to you by my letter, dated 26th May, by the Barbadoes ſloop, (a copy of which is incloſed), I bore away with the fleet the next afternoon, having the day before ſent the Bonetta ſloop, Capt. Holmes, with a Providence pilot on board him, to direct the veſſels to their proper ſtations on the Cuba ſide, and Bahama banks, that we might be guided by their ſignals in our paſſage. Luckily the next day the Richmond joined us. She had been down the Old Streights to Cayo Sal; and Capt. Elphinſton had been very diligent and careful in his remarks going through and returning back, having taken ſketches of the land and cayos on both ſides. He kept ahead of the fleet, and led us through very well. We paſſed the narroweſt part in the night between Cape Lobos and Cayo Comfito, keeping good fire-lights on each cayo for our directions; and found Lord Anſon's Spaniſh chart of the Old Streights a very juſt one. The Providence pilot, who was on board the Bonetta ſloop, placed the Trent, Capt. Lindſay, at the firſt ſtation on the Cuba ſide, forty-five leagues to the eaſtward of where ſhe ought to have been. This occaſioned ſome of the others never to find the cayos, where they were ſent to lie on; but no ill conſequence attended it, though we find the pilots in general ignorant of the paſſage.

On the 2d in the morning, the Alarm and Echo being ordered ahead to lie on the Cayo Sal bank, the former made the ſignal for ſeeing five ſail in the north-weſt quarter. They both chaſed, with other ſhips; and, about two in the afternoon, Capt. Alms in the Alarm came up with and engaged the Thetis, a Spaniſh frigate

gate of 22 guns and 180 men, and the Phœnix ſtore-ſhip, armed for war, of 18 guns and 75 men; and in three quarters of an hour both ſtruck to her. The Thetis had ten men killed, and fourteen wounded; the Alarm had ſeven men killed, and ten wounded. A brigantine and two ſchooners were at firſt in company with them; one of the latter eſcaped. They were bound to Sagoa, in the Streights, for timber for the uſe of the ſhips at the Havannah, from whence they had ſailed twelve days before. During all the paſſage through the Old Streights of Bahama, we had fine weather, and little current; and, on the 5th in the evening, got clear through, and ſaw the Metances. On the 6th in the morning brought to, about five leagues to the eaſtward of the Havannah, to iſſue out directions to the captains of the fleet and maſters of the tranſports with regard to landing the army; and having appointed the Hon. Commodore Keppel to conduct that part of the ſervice, leaving with him ſix ſhips of the line and ſome frigates, and having manned the flat-bottomed boats from the fleet, I bore away at two o'clock in the afternoon, with thirteen ſhips of the line, two frigates, the bomb-veſſels, and thirty-ſix ſail of victuallers and ſtoreſhips, and run down off the harbour, where I ſaw twelve Spaniſh ſhips of the line, and ſeveral merchant-ſhips.

Next morning I imbarked the marines in the boats, and made a feint of landing about four miles to the weſtward of the Havannah. About the ſame time the Earl of Albemarle landed with the whole army without oppoſition, between the rivers Boca-Nao and Coxemar, about ſix miles to the eaſtward of the Moro: but there appearing a body of men near the ſhore, Mr Keppel ordered the Mercury and Bonetta ſloop in ſhore, to ſcour the beach and woods; and a more conſiderable body of men appearing afterwards, as if they intended to oppoſe the Earl of Albemarle in paſſing

Coxemar river, the Commodore ordered Capt. Hervey in the Dragon to run in, and batter the caſtle; which, in a ſhort time, he ſilenced; and the army paſſed over unmoleſted.

The 8th, I ſent two frigates in ſhore, to ſound from as near the Punta fort as they could down along the weſt ſhore. They found anchoring-ground for three leagues down the coaſt, from twenty to five fathom water, and eaſy landing for any number of men. This afternoon the enemy ſunk one of their large ſhips of war in the entrance of the harbour, and another early next morning. The Earl of Albemarle having acquainted me, that the cavannos (or hill above the Moro) would be ſoon attacked; and, to facilitate the meaſure, deſired me to make a diverſion on this ſide. Accordingly, the 10th in the evening, I ordered Capt. Knight in the Belleiſle to go and batter the caſtle of Chorera, and ſent the Cerberus, Mercury, Bonetta, and Lurcher with her, to keep firing in the woods in the night, and imbarked all the marines in the boats. The next forenoon the enemy quitted the fort, and at one o'clock Col. Carleton (quartermaſter-general) attacked the cavannos, and ſoon made the enemy retreat down the hill, with little loſs on our ſide. I ordered the three bomb-veſſels to anchor this night, to throw ſhells into the town; which they accordingly performed, under cover of the Edgar, Stirling-caſtle, and Echo.

On the 12th a third ſhip being ſunk in the entrance of the harbour's mouth, which entirely blocked it up, I ordered four ſhips of the line to continue cruiſing in the offing, and anchored with the reſt off Chorera river, about four miles from the Havannah, which affords us plenty of good water and wood.

Having found it neceſſary to order 800 marines to be formed into two battalions, commanded by the Majors Campbell and Collins, Lord Albemarle ſignified

fied his requeſt they might be landed, and incamped on this ſide: at the ſame time his Lordſhip ordered a detachment of 1200 men over, under the command of Col. Howe. Accordingly they were landed the 15th, and have proved very ſerviceable.

Commodore Keppel remains on the eaſt ſide, at anchor off Coxemar river, with ſuch ſhips of war and tranſports as we find neceſſary; where he conſtantly keeps a number of ſeamen on ſhore, which the Earl of Albemarle thinks it neceſſary, to aſſiſt the army in landing their cannon and ordnance-ſtores of all kinds, or manning batteries, making faſcines, and ſupplying the army with water from this ſide, there being no water nor wells on the cavannos, as the weather has been for the greateſt part very dry. We have landed cannon that have been deſired, of different calibres, from the ſhips of war, two mortars from the Thunder-bomb on the eaſt ſide, and two from the Grenado on this ſide, with old cables made up for erecting defences, and old canvas for making ſand-bags, with ammunition, and every other aſſiſtance in our power; and the utmoſt cordiality and harmony ſubſiſts between the two corps.

On the 20th the bomb-batteries began to play againſt the Moro; but the want of earth retarded our batteries of cannon from being ready till the 1ſt of this month, when it was thought three large ſhips would prove ſerviceable to be placed againſt the north-eaſt part of the Moro. I therefore ordered for that ſervice the Dragon, Marlborough, and Cambridge, Capt. Hervey having readily offered to command the attack, and made very judicious diſpoſitions in placing the three ſhips. The Stirling-caſtle was ordered to lead until the firſt ſhip was properly placed, and then to have made ſail off: but Capt. Campbell not having performed that ſervice agreeable to the orders he received from Capt. Hervey, he has complained

complained of him, and desired his conduct may be inquired into; which shall be done as soon as the present affairs will permit.

As the ships were to move from the eastward where Mr Keppel is stationed, (who, in justice to him, I am glad to say, executes the duty intrusted to him with an activity, judgment, and diligence no one man can surpass), I directed him to superintend the attack, and give Capt. Hervey his orders to proceed when he saw it convenient. Accordingly the ships were ordered to weigh the evening of the 30th of June, and next morning went down, (Capt. Hervey having the signal out for the line). The Cambridge, Dragon, and Marlborough were placed as well and as near as their stations would admit of, against a fortress so high as the Moro, with an intention to dismount the guns, as well as beat down the wall. They began to cannonade about eight o'clock; and after keeping a constant fire until two in the afternoon, the Cambridge was so much damaged in her hull, masts, yards, sails, and rigging, with the loss of many men killed and wounded, that it was thought proper to order her off; and soon after the Dragon, which had likewise suffered in loss of men, and damage in her hull; and it being found that the Marlborough, Capt. Burnet, could be of no longer service, she was ordered off likewise. The number of the killed and wounded is as follows, to wit,

	Killed.	Wounded.
Dragon ——	16	—— 37
Cambridge ——	24	—— 95
Marlborough —	2	—— 8

The Dragon, on the water's failing, had touched aground, and was forced to stave her water-casks to lighten her; but has received no damage as can be perceived from it. The captains behaved becoming gallant

gallant officers, as they expreſſed great ſatisfaction in the behaviour of the officers and men under their command. And we have to regret the loſs of Capt. Gooſtrey, who, though ſoon killed after the Cambridge brought up, carried her down with the greateſt calmneſs and ſpirit. Capt. Lindſay of the Trent ſupplied his place during the remainder of the action, and approved himſelf a brave man. I offered him the command of that ſhip, or of the Temple, or Devonſhire, the former being vacant by the death of Capt. Legge, and the latter by Capt. Marſhall's going into the Cambridge.

The Earl of Albemarle ſignified to me the ſhips had done incomparably well, having drawn much fire from our batteries, by which means they had an opportunity of diſmounting ſome of the Moro's guns which played againſt them.——

Admiralty-office, Sept. 8. Since the receipt of the above letter, laſt night Capt Urry, of his Majeſty's ſloop Viper, is arrived in town, who left the Havannah the 18th of July, and reports, that the guns of the Moro caſtle on the ſide towards the land were all ſilenced, only one being left mounted on that ſide, and the fire had ceaſed for two days before; and it was intended to ſtorm the place that night, or the night following, for which purpoſe all the bags of cotton were taken out of the Jamaica fleet coming home, in order to fill up the ditch.

That he did not hear of the death of any officer of rank in the ſea or land ſervice, except Captain Gooſtrey.

Copy

Copy of a letter from the Earl of Albemarle to the Earl of Egremont, dated headquarters near the Havannah, Auguſt 21. 1762.

My Lord,

I Have the honour of informing your Lordſhip, that the town of the Havannah, with all its dependencies, and the men of war in the harbour, ſurrendered to his Majeſty's arms by capitulation on the 13th inſtant.

Incloſed is a copy of the capitulation, various returns, and the chief engineer's continuation of the journal of the ſiege of the Moro fort, which was taken by ſtorm the 30th of laſt month, ſo much to the honour and credit of his Majeſty's troops, and to Maj.-Gen. Keppel, who commanded the attack, that I ſhould do them injuſtice if I did not mention them in a particular manner to your Lordſhip. Our mines were ſprung about one o'clock, and a breach made juſt practicable for a file of men in front. The enemy was drawn up on the top of it, in force, with a ſeeming determination to defend it: the attack was ſo vigorous and impetuous, that the enemy was inſtantaneouſly drove from the breach, and his Majeſty's ſtandard planted upon the baſtion.

I did not ſend a particular expreſs with this good news to your Lordſhip, becauſe I flattered myſelf that what has happened would ſoon be the conſequence of our ſucceſs at Fort Moro.

On the 11th in the morning, by a ſignal from the fort, we opened our batteries againſt the town, and Punta fort. The guns and mortars were ſo well ſerved by the artillery and ſailors, and their effect ſo great, that, in leſs than ſix hours, all the guns in the fort and north baſtion were ſilenced. The governor hung out the white flag, and beat a parley; and at the ſame time ſent out an officer to propoſe a ceſſation

of

of arms for twenty-four hours, in order to prepare the articles of capitulation.

I ſent on board the Namur to the admiral, to inform him of the governor's propoſals.

Sir George Pocock immediately came to my quarters, and we agreed to a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities to the 13th at twelve o'clock.

I ſummoned the governor on the 10th. His anſwer was very civil and proper; at the ſame time ſaid he would defend his town to the laſt extremity.

The diſficulties the officers and ſoldiers have met with, and the fatigues they have ſo cheerfully and reſolutely gone through, ſince the army firſt landed on this iſland, are not to be deſcribed. They deſerve from me the greateſt commendations; and I muſt intreat your Lordſhip to take the firſt opportunity of informing his Majeſty, how much I think myſelf obliged to Lt-Gen. Elliot, and the reſt of the general officers under my command; to every officer and ſoldier in the army; and to the officers and ſailors of his Majeſty's fleet, for the zealous manner with which they have carried on the ſervice, and for the great aſſiſtance I have received from them. Happy we ſhall all think ourſelves, if our conduct meets with his Majeſty's approbation.

Sir George Pocock and Com. Keppel have exerted themſelves in a moſt particular manner: and I may venture to ſay that there never was a joint undertaking carried on with more harmony and zeal on both ſides, which greatly contributed to the ſucceſs of it.

Capt. Nugent, one of my aid-de-camps, who has the honour of delivering you my diſpatches, can inform your Lordſhip of any particulars you are pleaſed to learn from him. He has been very active, and preſent at every material affair that has happened ſince the landing of the troops. I muſt beg through your Lordſhip to recommend him to his Majeſty as a

very deſerving young man. He carries with him the Spaniſh enſign taken at the Moro.

Col. Carleton, who has acted as brigadier ſince Lord Rollo left the army, had the misfortune of being wounded on the 22d of July when the enemy made a ſortie: he is at preſent in a fair way of doing well.

I think it but juſtice to Major Fuller who is my eldeſt aid-de-camp, to ſay, that I ſhould have ſent him to England, if I had not thought it would be more agreeable to his Majeſty to receive the news by one of his own ſervants.

I am, &c.

ALBEMARLE.

Copy of a letter from Sir George Pocock to Mr Clevland, dated off Chorera river, near the Havannah, the 19th of Auguſt 1762.

SIR,

I Deſire you will acquaint their Lordſhips, that it is with the greateſt pleaſure I now congratulate them on the great ſucceſs of his Majeſty's arms, in the reduction of the Havannah with all its dependencies.

The Moro fort was taken by ſtorm the 30th of laſt month, after a ſiege of twenty-nine days; during which time the enemy loſt above 1000 men, and a brave officer in Don Lewis de Velaſco, captain of one of their men of war, and governor in the Moro, mortally wounded in defending the colours ſword-in-hand in the ſtorm: and on the 11th inſtant, the governor of the Havannah deſired to capitulate for the town, which was granted, the articles agreed to, and ſigned, (a copy of which I incloſe), and we were put in poſſeſſion of the Punta and land-gate the 14th. With this great and important acquiſition to his Majeſty, have alſo fallen twelve large men of war of the line, as *per* liſt, three of which were ſunk, with a company's

ſhip,

ſhip, in the entrance of the harbour; nine are fit for ſea, and two upon the ſtocks; a blow that I hope will prove the more capital to the enemy, as they receive it ſo early in the war; and, I may venture to ſay, will leave all their ſettlements, in this part of the world, expoſed to any attempts that may be thought proper to be made on them. But however trivial, with the poſſeſſion of the Havannah, it may appear, yet I cannot help mentioning the diſcovery and poſſeſſing the harbour of Mariel, about ſeven leagues to the leeward of this, and which we had made ourſelves maſters of, though the enemy had endeavoured to ruin it, by ſinking ſhips in the entrance; and we had lately ſent near 100 tranſports with ſome men of war there, for ſecurity againſt the ſeaſon, in which we are already advanced.

It will be as needleſs, as almoſt impoſſible, for me to expreſs or deſcribe that perfect harmony that has uninterruptedly ſubſiſted between the fleet and army, from our firſt ſetting out. Indeed it is doing injuſtice to both, to mention them as two corps, ſince each has endeavoured, with the moſt conſtant and cheerful emulation, to render it but one; uniting in the ſame principles of honour and glory for their king and country's ſervice. I am glad, on this occaſion, to do juſtice to the diſtinguiſhed merit of Com. Keppel, who executed the ſervice, under his direction, on the Coxemar ſide, with the greateſt ſpirit, activity, and diligence; and I muſt repeat, that the zeal of his Majeſty's ſea officers and ſeamen exerted, in carrying on the ſervices allotted to them, is highly to be commended.

I ſhall now beg leave to refer their Lordſhips to Capt. Hervey for all further particulars, whom I ſend with this letter, and who has approved himſelf a brave and deſerving officer in this expedition; therefore

think myſelf obliged to deſire their Lordſhips will recommend him to his Majeſty. I am, Sir,

Your moſt obedient humble Servant,

G. Pocock.

State of the garriſon of Fort Moro, when taken by ſtorm July 30. 1762.

Killed 130, wounded 37, priſoners 310, officers ditto 16, drowned or killed in their boats 213. Total 706.

Return of the loſs of the Britiſh troops under Lt-Col. Stuart, at the aſſault of Fort Moro, July 30. 1762.

Two lieutenants, 12 rank and file, *killed*; 1 lieutenant, 4 ſerjeants, 23 rank and file, *wounded*.

State of the officers, ſerjeants, drummers, and ſoldiers belonging to the garriſon of the Havannah, which are to be ſent to Spain.

Three colonels, 2 lieutenant-colonels, 2 ſerjeant-majors, 4 aid-de-camps, 4 chaplains, 3 ſurgeons, 17 captains, 56 ſubalterns, 38 ſerjeants, 29 drummers, 778 ſoldiers. Total 936. 17 officers wives, 30 children, 7 ſoldiers wives, 3 children. Total 57.

N. B. The priſoners on board the men of war, and the ſick and wounded in the town, are not included in this return.

Return of guns, mortars, and principal ſtores found in the Moro caſtle, city of Havannah, and Punta, Aug. 14. 1762.

Braſs ordnance. One forty-two pounder, 4 thirty-ſix pounders, 3 thirty-two pounders, 11 twenty-ſix pounders, 1 twenty-four pounder, 3 twenty pounders, 8 eighteen pounders, 14 ſixteen pounders, 5 fifteen pounders,

pounders, 31 twelve pounders, 6 ten pounders, 3 eight pounders, 1 ſeven pounder, 4 ſix pounders, 3 five pounders, 1 four and a half pounder, 3 four pounders. Total braſs ordnance, 102.

Iron ordnance. Two thirty-ſix pounders, 25 twenty-ſix pounders, 68 twenty-four pounders, 67 eighteen pounders, 47 ſixteen pounders, 16 twelve pounders, 6 eleven pounders, 18 eight pounders. Total iron ordnance, 249.

Braſs mortars. One nine inch, 1 eight inch, 3 five inch, 4 four and a half inches.

Iron mortars. One thirteen inch, 1 twelve inch.

Powder. Quintals,	——	——	537
Muſkets of different calibres,	——	——	4157
Ditto cartridges filled,	——	——	125000
Hand-granadoes fixed,	——	——	500
Muſket-ball. Quintals,	——	——	30
Empty ſhells, of ſorts,	——	——	460
Round ſhot, 24 pounders,	——	——	7603
18 ditto,	——	——	1613
16 ditto,	——	——	5650
12 ditto,	——	——	1458
8 ditto,	——	——	80

SAM. CLEAVELAND,
Lieutenant-colonel royal regiment of artillery.

N. B. There are many articles of ſmall ſtores, the particulars of which at preſent cannot be aſcertained.

Return of the killed, wounded, miſſing, and dead of the Britiſh troops from their landing on the iſland of Cuba, June 7. to Aug. 13. 1762.

Staff. Brig. Carleton, *wounded.*

1ſt reg. St Clair's. Lieut. Cook and Aſhe, *killed.* Capt. Balfour, Lieut. Ruth, Enſ. Keating, *wounded.*

4th reg. Dureure's. Lieut. Chitty, *wounded.* Enſ. Lindſay, *died.*

9th reg.

9*th reg. Whitmore's.* Enſ. Wood, *killed.* Lt-Col. Thomas, Capt. Suttie, Lieut. Surman, *died.*

15*th reg. Amherſt's.* Lieut. Skene, *killed.* Capt. Tyrwhitt, Lieut. Winter, *died.*

17*th reg. Monckton's.* Lieut. Martin, Enſ. M'Grath, *wounded.*

22*d reg. Gage's.* Lieut. Stannus, *wounded.* Capt. Schaak, Lieut. Burke, *died.*

27*th reg. Warburton's.* Enſ. Orr, *killed.* Capt. Morris, *wounded.* Lt-Col. Gordon, *died.*

34*th reg. Cavendiſh's.* Lieut. Johnſton, *killed.* Lieut. Wyley, Enſ. Mortiboys, *died.* Lieut. Banks, *dead of wounds.*

35*th reg. Otway's.* Lieut. Widdrington, *killed.* Lieut. Fitzgerald, Enſ. Chandler, *wounded.*

40*th reg. Armiger's.* Lieut. Reid, *died.*

42*d reg. firſt battalion. Ld J. Murray's.* Maj. M'Neil, Capt. M'Donald, Lieut. Mill and Blair, *died.*

Ditto, ſecond battalion. Capt. Menzies, Lieut. Grant, Laſsby, Farquharſon, and Cunniſon, *died.*

43*d reg. Talbot's.* Capt. Spendlove, *wounded.*

48*th reg. Webb's.* Capt. Crofton, Lieut. Atkinſon and Frazer, *died.*

56*th reg. Keppel's.* Lieut. White, Enſ. Ingram, *died.*

60*th reg. third battalion, Haviland's.* Lieut. Sears, Enſ. Power, *wounded.* Enſ. M'Dougal, *died.* Enſ. Stewart, *dead of wounds.*

72*d reg. D. of Richmond's.* Lieut. Bruce, *wounded.* Lieut. Bowers, Quartermaſter Wall, *died.* Enſ. Brice, *dead of wounds.*

77*th reg. Montgomery's.* Lieut. M'Vicker, *killed.* Maj. Mirrie, Lieut. Grant and M'Nabb, *died.*

90*th reg. Grant's.* Lieut. Holroyd, *killed.* Lieut. Waſtel, *wounded.* Capt. Windus, Enſ. Kelly, *died.*

98*th reg. Burton's.* Enſ. Deade, *wounded.* Lieut. Burton, *died.* Lieut. Barber, *dead of wounds.*

Engineers. Capt. Gordon, Enſ. Moncrieff, *wounded.*

Royal

Royal Artillery. Capt. Strachy, Lieut. Fireworker-Boſſom, *killed.* Lt-Col. Leith, Firſt Lieut. Benjeman, *died.*

Provincials. Maj. Ferron, Capt. Goreham, *died.* Total. Officers; 11 *killed*, 19 *wounded*, 39 *died*, 4 *dead of wounds.*

15 ſerjeants, 4 drummers, 260 rank and file, *killed.* 49 ſerjeants, 6 drummers, 576 rank and file, *wounded.* 1 ſerjeant, 4 drummers, 125 rank and file, *miſſing.* 14 ſerjeants, 11 drummers, 632 rank and file, *died.* 1 drummer, 51 rank and file, *dead of wounds.*

A liſt of the ſhips of war that were in the harbour of the Havannah, under the command of the Marqueſs del Real Tranſporte, commodore and commander in chief of all his Catholic Majeſty's ſhips in America, and ſurrendered with the city, Aug. 12. 1762.

Ships.	*Guns.*	*Commanders.*	*Surrendered, ſunk, or taken.*
Tigre	70	El Marqueſs del Real Tranſporte, Don Juan Ygnacio Madariaga,	Surrendered with the city.
Reyna	70	Don Louis de Velaſco, - -	Ditto.
Soverano	70	Don Juan del Poſtigo, - -	Ditto.
Infante	70	Don Franciſco de Medina, -	Ditto.
Neptuno	70	Don Pedro Bermudas, - - -	Sunk in the ent. of the harbour.
Aquilon	70	El Marqueſs Gonzales, - -	Surrendered with the city.
Aſia	64	Don Franciſco Garganta, - -	Sunk in the ent. of the harbour.
America	60	Don Juan Antonio, - - -	Surrendered with the city.
Europa	60	Don Joſeph Vincente, - - -	Sunk in the ent. of the harbour.
Conqueſtado	60	Don Pedro Caſtejon, - - -	Surrendered with the city.
San Genaro	60	New ſhips and no captains appointed, - - -	Ditto.
San Antonio	60		
Frigates.			
Vinganza	24	Don Diago Argote, - - -	Taken by the Defiance in Mariel harbour, June 28. 1762.
Thetis	22	Don Joſeph Porlier, - -	Taken by the Alarm in the Old Streights of Bahama, June 2.
Marte	18	Don Domingo Bonechea, -	Taken by the Defiance in Mariel harbour, June 28. 1762.

N.B. *There are two ſhips of war on the ſtocks, and ſeveral merchant-ſhips in the harbour.*

Extract

Extract of a letter from Sir George Pocock to Mr Clevland, dated off Chorera river, the 16th of Auguſt 1762.

ON the 28th of July the Intrepide arrived, with eleven ſail of tranſports, with troops from New York. They ſailed from thence the 11th of June. The Cheſterfield and four tranſports run on Cayo Comfite, the entrance of the Bahama ſtreights on the Cuba ſide, the 24th of July, an hour before day-light, and were ſtranded, but loſt no ſeamen or ſoldiers. The Intrepide met the Richmond the day after, who was looking out for the convoy. Capt. Elphinſton returned with three tranſports which were cleared, in order to bring away the ſeamen and troops who were on ſhore; and, to make all poſſible diſpatch, I ſent away the Echo, Cygnet, and Thunder-bomb, to meet the Richmond, and take the men out of her; and ordered Capt. Elphinſton to take the Cygnet with him, and proceed up the Streights to meet the ſecond diviſion of tranſports.

The 2d inſtant, the Echo and bomb returned with the ſecond diviſion, conſiſting of eleven ſail of tranſports, which ſailed from New York the 30th of June. The Richmond, Lizard, Enterpriſe, Cygnet, and Porcupine ſloop, arrived the 8th, bringing with them all the ſeamen and ſoldiers from the ſhips that were wrecked. Capt. Banks informed me, that, on the 21ſt of July, at three o'clock in the afternoon, being near the paſſage between Maya Guanna and the North Caicos, he diſcovered two French ſhips of the line, three frigates, and ſix ſail of brigantines and ſloops; that the men of war and frigates gave chace to the convoy; and that five of the tranſports were taken, with 350 regulars of Anſtruther's regiment, and 150 provincial troops on board of them. All the reſt of the troops arrived and landed in perfect health.

I have thought it neceſſary to order the Sutherland and Dover to be fitted as flags of truce, taking out their lower tier of guns in order to accommodate the late Spaniſh commodore, the governor of the Havannah, the viceroy of Peru, and the governor of Carthagena, to Old Spain, and then return to England. Tranſports are getting ready for the Spaniſh ſoldiers and ſailors, agreeable to the terms of capitulation, which, I hope, we ſhall be able to diſpatch in a few days.

I have not been able to collect an account of the killed and wounded ſeamen belonging to the different ſhips ſince the beginning of the ſiege, who were employed at the batteries on ſhore, but it ſhall go by the firſt opportunity.

2 JY 61

F I N I S.